

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 281 339

EC 192 436

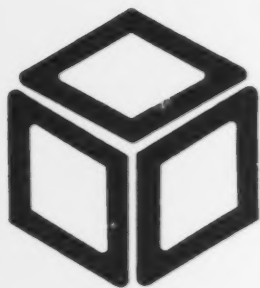
AUTHOR Halseth, Susan L.
 TITLE Decisions: A Process for Screening Educational Problems in the Classroom. Participant Workbook.
 INSTITUTION Cooperative Educational Service Agency #10, Chippewa Falls, WI.; Wisconsin State Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison.
 REPORT NO WDPI-Bull-7055
 PUB DATE 85
 NOTE 84p.; Classroom Screening for Learning Disabilities Project. The material was developed in part with funds from the State of Wisconsin, P.L. 94-142 Discretionary Project.
 PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)
 -- Reference Materials - Bibliographies (131)
 EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
 DESCRIPTORS Decision Making; Decision Making Skills; *Educational Diagnosis; Educational Methods; Elementary Secondary Education; Expectation; *Handicap Identification; *Inservice Teacher Education; Intervention; *Learning Disabilities; *Referral; Screening Tests; Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Workshops
 IDENTIFIERS *Wisconsin

ABSTRACT

This workbook was developed for an inservice workshop to assist regular education teachers and others in screening and making more appropriate referrals for suspected learning disabilities. The first part of the workbook consists of a series of topic papers that form the theoretical base of the decision-making process used in the workbook for screening education problems. These papers cover introductory material on decisions, rationale for screening, teaching assistance teams, learning disabilities, expectations, and match-mismatch of performance and expectations. Following an overview of the decision process, a series of worksheets are provided to assist teachers in: (1) identifying their own expectations for student performance behavior; (2) comparing those expectations to what the students are doing; (3) asking and answering questions that help to zero in on the problem(s); (4) identifying factors that may be contributing to the problem(s); (5) collecting and analyzing data; (6) deciding on alternatives; and (7) planning classroom intervention strategies. An extensive annotated list of resource materials is also provided, along with the Wisconsin state rules for the identification of children as learning disabled.
 (KM)

 * Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
 * from the original document. *

ED281339



DECISIONS:

A process for screening educational problems in the classroom

PARTICIPANT WORKBOOK

**PROJECT DIRECTOR:
SUSAN L. HALSETH**

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

- ☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
- ☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction

**Dr. Herbert Grover
State Superintendent**

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

*Wisconsin Dept. of
Public Instruction*

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

**Victor J. Contrucci
Assistant State Superintendent
Division for Handicapped Children
and Pupil Services**

**Thomas S. Stockton, Chief
Developmental Behavioral and
Learning Impaired Section**

**Paul T. Halverson, Director
Bureau for Exceptional Children**

**Dr. Harold D. Schmidt, Supervisor
Learning Disabilities Programs**

Bulletin No. 7055

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EA 192436

CESA #10
Classroom Screening for Learning Disabilities

Project Designer/Major Author: Susan Halseth
Contributing Editor: Sandra Kallio
Typist: Mary Ann Moen
Editing Assistant: Heidi Christopherson

VIDEOTAPED PROGRAMS:

University of Wisconsin-Stout
Teleproduction Center
Menomonie, Wisconsin

Director: Rosemary Jacobson
Executive Producer: Dave Conyer
Producer/Director: Ed Jakober
Television Scripts: Rosemary Jacobson

PARTICIPANT WORKBOOK, FACILITATOR GUIDE,
AND OVERHEAD TRANSPARENCIES:

Instructional Developer: Susan Halseth
Instructional Development Consultant:
Joseph G. Hagaman
Evaluation Consultant: Robert Sedlak
University of Wisconsin-Stout
Instructional Technology Services

PROJECT CONSULTANTS:

Jerome Fiene
Thorp Public Schools
Bonnie Fisher
Eau Claire Public Schools
Avril D. J. Font
Eau Claire Public Schools
Lee J. Gruenewald
Madison Public Schools
Janet E. Harvey
Boyceville Public Schools
Hal Hiebert
UW-LaCrosse
Karen Hirsch
Eau Claire Public Schools
Vicki Lord Larson
UW-Eau Claire
Jean Meier
Eau Claire Public Schools
Bonnie Miles
Eleva-Strum Area Schools

Penny Miller
CESA #10
Linda Olson
Altoona Public Schools
Shirley Rosenow
Bloomer Public Schools
Phillip Rucinski
UW-Oshkosh
Jon Rulien
CESA #10
Connie Russell
Eau Claire Public Schools
Billie Earl Sparks
UW-Eau Claire
Joan Sosalla
St. Peter and Paul School,
Independence, WI
Rose Vruno
Eau Claire Public Schools
Mary Whooley
Thorp Public Schools

All rights reserved. No portion of this manual may be reproduced in any form without permission from CESA #10.

This material was developed in part with funds from the State of Wisconsin, P.L. 94-142 Discretionary Project #84-6806-15.

The activity which is the subject of this program was supported in whole or in part by the Department of Education, Office of Special Education. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Department of Education and no official endorsement by the U.S. Office of Education should be inferred.

Copyright

© 1985 by CESA #10, Classroom Screening for Learning Disabilities Project,
725 West Park Avenue, Chippewa Falls, Wisconsin 54729

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction

About this project	5
What's in this workbook	5
Goals of the workshop	6

Definition of Terms	7
---------------------------	---

Background Topic Papers	9
-------------------------------	---

Introduction to Decisions	11
---------------------------------	----

Rationale for the Screening Process	15
---	----

Teaching Assistance Teams	17
---------------------------------	----

Learning Disabilities	21
-----------------------------	----

Expectations	23
--------------------	----

Match-Mismatch	27
----------------------	----

A Learning Quiz	29
-----------------------	----

The Decision Process	31
----------------------------	----

Classroom Review	33
------------------------	----

Describe	37
----------------	----

Intervene	59
-----------------	----

Follow-up	65
-----------------	----

Annotated Resource Lists	67
--------------------------------	----

Works Consulted	83
-----------------------	----

Appendix	87
----------------	----

Worksheet Masters	91
-------------------------	----

INTRODUCTION

About this Project

The Decisions inservice workshop, a joint effort of CESA #10 and the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, is the result of a project that began in July, 1982. The purpose of the project was to develop an inservice training program that would assist regular educators and others in screening and making more appropriate referrals for suspected learning disabilities.

The workshop instructional package includes:

- a participant manual.
- eight program videotapes at four grade levels, grades one to six.
- overhead transparencies.

The multimedia package uses a case study approach to improve teacher decision making, consultation, and classroom interventions for learning problems. The training helps teachers deal more effectively with educational problems and initiate more appropriate exceptional education referrals. The materials emphasize using available school and community resources to meet needs within the regular classes whenever possible. The program also encourages the use of teaching assistance teams to help teachers develop instructional strategies and make screening decisions.

The effectiveness of the program and the screening process it teaches will be determined by the extent to which it assists teachers in sorting out students who are likely to need exceptional education services and, therefore, need comprehensive assessment, from those who can be effectively taught in regular education.

What's in This Workbook

This manual is a workbook. Although the first part contains a series of topic papers important to understanding the screening decision making process, it is a workbook. It contains worksheets and resources to help you screen educational problems in your classroom.

The worksheets help by allowing you to plug in your own information. They are designed to provide the structure for problem solving. It is not necessary to complete every worksheet to conduct screening. Using them you can:

- identify your own expectations for student performance/behavior.
- compare those expectations to what the students are doing.
- ask and answer questions that help to zero in on the problem(s).
- identify factors that may be contributing to the problem(s).
- collect and analyze data.
- decide on alternatives.
- plan classroom intervention strategies.

Our commitment in developing the workbook was to help you bring about the changes you identify as necessary, with the methods that work best in your classroom and in ways that make efficient use of scarce resources. We hope the screening process will help you to manage conditions so that serious problems are less likely to occur. If such problems do occur, we hope the screening process helps you to make the difficult decisions involved in linking children with the services and the support needed to achieve their educational potential.

Goals of the Workshop

1. Teachers and others will show increased understanding of student learning difficulties that may be caused by the student having the handicapping condition of learning disabilities.
2. Teachers and others will show increased understanding of student learning difficulties that may be caused by factors other than the student having the handicapping condition of learning disabilities.
3. Teachers and others will show increased understanding of their roles and responsibilities in screening students who may be learning disabled.
4. Teachers and others will show increased ability to conduct classroom screening using interventions designed to provide information about mismatches between expectations and student performance/behavior.
5. Teachers and others will increase their ability to make appropriate screening decisions.
6. Teachers and others will show increased understanding of the benefits that appropriate screening practice has for the total education program.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

TERM	DEFINITION
Baseline	Data collected that documents the usual behavior or performance level to which the effect of change can be compared.
Behavior	The manner in which one behaves, measureable activity.
Consequence	That which logically or naturally follows from an action or condition; an effect; result.
Discrepancy	An instance of divergence or disagreement, as between facts or claims; inconsistency.
EEN	Exceptional Educational Need - "a mental, physical, emotional or learning disability which, if the full potential of the child is to be attained, requires services to the child to supplement or replace regular education." (Chapter 115 of Wisconsin Statutes).
EEN Referral	Act of directing someone to services that provide for the identification of children with suspected EEN.
Environment	Sum total of an organism's surroundings.
Expectations	Something considered likely or certain; something considered obligatory or something required; a set of values or standards for student behavior/performance held by others.
Explicit Expectation	Specified; clearly defined; expectations expressed with precision.
Hypothesis	An assumption that is subject to verification; used as a basis for further action.
Implicit Expectation	Implied, understood although not directly expressed; contained in the nature of something.
Individualized Instructional Program	Providing a personalized set of learning experiences. Teacher is responsible for diagnosing, prescribing for, and guiding each student through the learning process. Can be through one to one, small group or large group activities.

TERM	DEFINITION
Intervention	An activity to bridge the gap between "what is" (actual status) and "what should be" (expected status).
Match	Student performance/behavior is compatible with the expectations of others who constitute a given learning environment.
Mismatch	Student performance/behavior is not compatible with the expectations of others who constitute a given learning environment.
Non-EEN Referral	The act of directing someone to services that do not provide for the identification of children with suspected EEN.
Performance	The act of fulfilling an obligation or requirement.
Referral	The act of directing someone to a source for help or information.
Screening	Collecting and reviewing information about individuals to identify those who may be exceptional.
Strategy	A carefully devised plan of action designed to accomplish a specific purpose.
Teaching Assistance Team	A group of teachers and others organized to assist their colleagues in resolving educational problems. Also known as a Teacher Assistance Team, Building Assistance Team, Student Assistance Team, etc.

BACKGROUND TOPIC PAPERS

These topic papers form the theoretical base of the decision making process for screening educational problems used in the workshop Decisions. Understanding the concepts presented in these readings is crucial to the decision making process you will practice during the workshop and eventually will utilize in your classroom. Please answer the study questions that follow each paper and take the Learning Quiz at the end of the readings. They will help you to apply the concepts in the workshop. Bring the topic papers and your completed assignments to the first work session.

Introduction to Decisions

Learning by doing is the premise of this workshop, so you will review case studies of problem learning situations and decide how to resolve them. As you work through each case, you will develop an understanding of some commonly occurring learning difficulties and become familiar with a decision making process to screen for learning disabilities in grades 1 to 6.

"Screening" simply refers to collecting and reviewing information about individuals to identify those who may be exceptional.

You will begin the workshop with activities to introduce terms and concepts and to explain the rationale for the screening decision making process. The first case study follows, beginning with a videotape dramatization of a classroom teaching activity focusing on a student who is experiencing a problem in math, reading, or writing. The case you work through is chosen to meet your grade level and subject area interests from the following:

- first grade reading and first grade mathematics;
- third grade reading and third grade mathematics;
- fourth grade reading and fourth grade mathematics; and
- fifth grade writing and fifth grade mathematics.

You will note pertinent information from a review of a portion of the videotape and the case file. Individual, small group, and large group activities follow to help you refine a statement of the problem and suggested intervention. You will view the portion of the videotape depicting one intervention plan, then discuss it and other alternatives. Next, you will develop a plan describing the course of action you expect to follow over a specified period of time. Subsequent cases can follow for additional screening practice and to learn new interventions for other subject and grade level problems.

The cases become more complex from one grade to the next higher grade. Concepts, analytical approaches, and factual information you pick up from one case can be applied to subsequent cases in this workshop and later in your own classroom.

About the Case Studies

The workshop relies heavily on case problem analysis to present a screening decision making process and new instructional interventions, so you need to know more about the cases and how to use them.

The cases depict actual learning situations. Dealing with them is very much like dealing with problems teachers encounter daily.

Development of Cases

The eight case studies grew out of student profiles developed by public school educational specialists and university faculty members in the areas of reading, writing, and mathematics. The problems presented in these profiles were identified by analyzing and categorizing (by grade level and type) the problems reported on 44 recently submitted exceptional education referral forms for first through sixth grade students with suspected learning disabilities. The referrals had been generated by regular education teachers in four rural and one urban school district in Wisconsin. After the most frequently reported problems were identified by grade level, specialists and university faculty members wrote descriptive profiles of students who might

display these problems. Other regular education teachers and specialists reviewing the profiles confirmed that they represent some commonly occurring learning difficulties.

After the case profiles were completed, a group of regular educators and specialists working in the schools were asked to assist in developing the case materials for each case study. The educators gathered and created the information used to build the profiles into realistic case situations. The resulting materials, including the videotape scripts, depict actual students and teachers disguised to protect the individuals and schools without distorting the essence of the particular problem. The cases were developed under the guidance of the project director. Project consultants and advisors reviewed the materials at several points to check the authenticity, accuracy, and completeness of the data.

Problems with the Cases

Despite of the realism we tried to build into our cases, they are not actual learning situations. First, the information comes to you in a neatly organized package. In real life, teachers accumulate facts through memos, conversations, and on the spot modifications in teaching techniques.

Second, a case is designed to fit into a particular unit of workshop time and to focus on a certain category of problem - for example, a primary level addition facts problem or a middle grade level writing problem - in order to focus attention on what the developers would like participants to see. Some elements of the real situation - people or organizational issues such as time - may be omitted. Because time is distorted, you cannot take some action, consider the consequences, and then take more action tomorrow. You have no opportunity to gather additional data, so you will have to rely on your own experience to logically fill in any gaps.

Unlike real education problems, you can wrap up a problem and go on to the next case. A workshop case is lacking in reality in one final respect: Although you are expected to make decisions, you don't have responsibility for implementing action based on those decisions.

Benefits of the Cases

The usefulness of the cases outweighs the deficiencies mentioned above. The cases cut across a range of teaching styles, schools, and students to provide a greater exposure than one experiences in day-to-day routines. Yet, you will recognize problems you might encounter in your classroom or school. The practice provided through the workshop will help you manage those problems in an effective manner.

Of the potential benefits from working through the cases, the most important is learning to ask the right questions. Answers are relatively easy to find once you have determined the problems the teacher must resolve.

The cases also will sharpen your analytical skills. You will work with data and produce evidence to support your decisions and recommendations. When challenged to defend your conclusions, you will improve your ability to reason rigorously.

In addition, the cases and related discussions provide a focal point for exchanging lessons of experience. They provide a vehicle for reassessing these lessons and learning more from them. You will often be working in a small group, so you will have access to your colleagues' support and knowledge.

The cases also are useful for developing sets of principles and concepts that can be applied in the future.

Finally, you will be challenged as an education manager and decision maker as you work through the case studies. You may see situations you want to avoid! Overall, the workshop will reinforce the idea that teaching is a great challenge - intellectually, politically, and socially.

The Decisions workshop uses a decision making process called the Decision Process for Educational Screening. It is a rational systems approach to problem solving. It will help you make decisions when students are experiencing learning difficulties and you are uncertain whether to make a learning disabilities referral. Early in each case study you will have to make judgments about student abilities, motivations, and behavior by detecting "mismatches" between student performance/behavior and teacher expectations. Later, you will be required to verify those judgments by conducting actual screening activities.

For Further Thought:

1. List at least three ways you expect this workshop to help you become a better teacher, specialist, or principal.
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
2. Write a question you have pertaining to the Decisions workshop.

The rationale that follows explains why the decision process approach to screening is so important.

Rationale for the Screening Process

Valid decision making starts with an open-minded review of the entire situation including all people, program components, and interactions. Neither regular educators nor educational specialists have the training or experience to rely on judgment alone in defining the varied problem situations they encounter daily.

Yet, teachers frequently use a judgmental paradigm rather than disciplined inquiry when they screen educational problems in the classroom. This may occur because teachers have adopted the expectation that they should be "experts," or it may be because disciplined inquiry is more time consuming. Whatever the reason, the use of the judgmental approach to decision-making short-circuits the problem solving process by dealing with the most obvious and expedient - but perhaps not the most critical - aspects of the situation.

Society encourages teachers to use the judgmental paradigm by expecting that, as "experts," they should recognize the nature of a problem when they see it - leading swiftly to a remedy. Defining the problem(s) is the most important part of the problem solving process. Focusing on problem resolution prematurely limits the conscious exploration of alternatives and the interpretation of the data. What is looked for, what is considered important, what is perceived as contingencies and side effects all are influenced by the initial definition of the problem. As an "expert," the teacher may view the problem as residing primarily outside of himself or herself.

The nature of their working environment also encourages teachers to use the judgmental paradigm. Their job responsibilities place external time constraints on them; they are deluged with information that has instructional implications; these reduce the likelihood that they will conduct a careful, systematic inquiry into the learning problems encountered by their students.

Gathering and analyzing data in a comprehensive and unbiased manner is a time consuming and intellectually challenging task. When a teacher feels pressured to take action quickly, his or her judgments may lead to inappropriate programming for the students.

It makes sense to use disciplined inquiry when trying to determine the nature of a learning difficulty. The Decision Process for Educational Screening incorporates a "naturalistic" paradigm for disciplined inquiry that has several characteristics to recommend it:

- For example, the data generated in the problem situation lead to an educated guess about the nature of the problem. (In the judgmental paradigm, a prior determination leads to a search for confirming data.)
- The Decision Process takes full advantage of a teacher's powers as an investigator and agent of change.
- By focusing on the data and examining alternatives, the process eliminates hidden assumptions and interpretations.
- The Decision Process for Educational Screening formalizes, systematizes, and describes practices, procedures, and guidelines classroom teachers should use in screening. It assures that they make screening decisions and institute instructional interventions in their classrooms that are the most appropriate, practical, and effective means of addressing the identified problems.

As you begin analyzing the case problem situations presented in the Decisions workshop, you need to be conscious of the tendency to use a judgmental paradigm rather than disciplined inquiry. Only by remaining open-minded can you go through the screening process with each case study confident that the learning problems you've identified, analyzed, and attempted to resolve have been dealt with in an appropriate manner.

For Further Thought:

1. List two or three sources of data available to you as a classroom teacher that make you the key "investigator" in classroom screening.
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
2. List at least three factors you weight heavily when making instructional decisions involving students who show academic learning problems.
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
3. Write a question you have about the rationale for a decision process approach to classroom screening.

Although the decision making process can be carried out by one teacher in one classroom, teachers and students benefit most when the screening process is carried out in the setting of a teaching assistance team. The following section addresses what a Teaching Assistance Team is and how a team might be established.

Teaching Assistance Teams

The most critical decision in the referral-to-placement process is the decision to refer, according to research. On a national level, approximately 75 percent of the children referred were placed in exceptional education. Unfortunately, exceptional education placement is not always appropriate, nor does it necessarily result in improved student performance. Many children's educational problems can be resolved faster and more directly if teachers experiencing problems in their classes have access to their colleagues' support and knowledge.

The teaching assistance team is a vehicle for providing this help in an organized and efficient manner. It may be known as a teacher consultation team, building level assistance team, or another term, and it may be an informal group.

The basic premise of the teaching assistance team is that all educators in a school, along with ancillary staff, share responsibility for the successful education of every student in that school. The classroom teacher experiencing a problem with a student need not feel responsible for solving it alone, but he/she participates as an active member of the team. His/her experience, knowledge and skills - along with those of other team members - often can be used to resolve educational problems. As a team, the school staff reviews the problem and suggests interventions.

Besides providing for immediate intervention for a perceived problem, the teaching assistance team fulfills a screening function. Teachers who are uncertain about whether to refer for exceptional education have a group of professionals with whom they can discuss the problem.

However, the teaching assistance team cannot be used to delay exceptional educational needs (EEN) referrals or to deny services to children who need them. The teaching assistance team is not a referral review committee; it functions in the realm of regular education, although special educators can be involved. All teachers should be encouraged to bring their problems to the teaching assistance team, but they cannot be required to do so prior to initiating an EEN referral.

The teaching assistance team offers many advantages in addition to quick intervention and screening. A team increases concern for individualized instruction, shares teacher competencies and ideas, improves staff communication, reduces inappropriate EEN referrals, and assists in supporting mainstreamed EEN students.

Teaching Assistance Team Membership

Team membership should provide stability and flexibility. Some members should be fixed; others should be on call, depending on the grade level and the presenting problem. Membership philosophy varies from model to model. Some teams include the principal or assistant principal as a fixed team member, while others call for a body of teachers elected by their peers.

Given the problem-solving responsibility of the teaching assistance team, team membership should be small. A large group may block effective decision making.

Teaching Assistance Team Meetings

Frequency of meetings will depend upon school size. In most cases, a weekly meeting - preferably the same time on the same day - will suffice. To accommodate everyone's teaching schedule, the meetings may be before or after class time. The team should discuss only those problem situations on the agenda for the day, and it should meet only if it has problems to discuss.

Team Responsibilities

The team's responsibilities depend on the identified needs of a school building. Responsibilities generally will include:

1. Delineating and clarifying problems.
2. Recommending additional assessment.
3. Developing intervention plans.
4. Monitoring intervention plans.
5. Making recommendations for non-EEN remedial education services.

Duties of the Teaching Assistance Team Coordinator

One person should be selected or appointed coordinator. Any teaching assistance team member could fill this role, as long as he or she is willing to assume responsibility for duties including:

1. Scheduling referred problem situations for teaching assistance team meetings.
2. Communicating with members about meetings.
3. Requesting attendance of non-teaching assistance team members at the meetings.
4. Insuring that pertinent background information is organized and available for meetings.
5. Facilitating discussion and problem solving.
6. Insuring intervention plans are implemented.
7. Following up on the case.

Staff commitment is essential to an effective teaching assistance team. Some risk-taking is involved, so the situation must be as non-threatening as possible. The teachers should view themselves as a team. They should recognize they will need each other's help and must not belittle each other for seeking assistance.

Two psychologists, Dr. James C. Chalfant and Ms. Margaret Van Dusen Pysh, have written a paper titled Implementing Teacher Assistance Teams in Your School District. See your training facilitator for more information.

For Further Thought:

1. If you have a Teaching Assistance Team in your school, describe your thoughts, feelings, and behavior in response to being a member of that team.
 - a. I thought ...
 - b. I felt ...
 - c. I (did) ...
2. If you do not have a Teaching Assistance Team in your school, describe your thoughts, feelings, and behavior in response to becoming a member of the team.
 - a. I think ...
 - b. I would feel ...
 - c. I would (do) ...
3. Write one question you have about a Teaching Assistance Team.

Screening decisions involving students who may be learning disabled are the most difficult to make. And, there are no simple checklists to use that make the decisions any easier. The definition and criteria used to identify this diverse group is elaborated on in the following paper.

Learning Disabilities

"Learning disabilities" is a generic term used to define individuals who are experiencing serious learning problems that are independent of intelligence, emotional state, physical limitation, and/or socio-economic background. A learning disabled individual is one whose failure to learn to read, write, spell, and do mathematics cannot be explained by environmental factors, inappropriate education, or other handicapping conditions.

No uniformly accepted definition of learning disabilities exists, but almost all definitions include some concept of severity, and most are limited by exclusions.

Differences in definitions are a substantial concern, but one must not let this problem interfere with the important business of educating children. Professionals need not agree on an LD definition, but they must understand each other's definitions so that they can work together.

The specific definition varies from state to state and from individual to individual. Individuals identified as learning disabled in one location may not be identified as such in another location. Even within a district, medical and educational professionals may disagree on the definition.

Given the lack of a common definition, one can understand why the learning disabled population is so diverse. Learning disabled individuals may reflect intelligence throughout the normal and gifted range, may have general or very specific education deficits, may have excellent or poor social skills, etc.

The heterogeneous nature of the LD population poses a problem: How can one ascribe characteristics of the learning disabled?

Many of the characteristics used are also common to immature children or individuals with other handicapping conditions. The reader is cautioned that the characteristics listed below are not limited to the learning disabled, nor do all the learning disabled show each characteristic. The characteristics are listed as a guide to help the reader recognize individuals who possibly have learning disabilities.

LD Characteristics:

1. Normal or above normal intelligence.
2. A severe discrepancy between an individual's classroom functioning and expected functioning based on ability and school experience.
3. Reversals of letters, numbers and words past age 9.
4. Substantial language development problems.
5. Problems in sequencing and ordering.
6. Significant inattentiveness.
7. Written work that shows poor spacing, disorganization, and poor eye-hand coordination.
8. Poor comprehension and retention.
9. Poor time management.

For your reference, the legal definitions and eligibility criteria used by a multidisciplinary team (M-team) in determining the existence of a handicapping condition are included in the attached appendix.

For Further Thought:

1. In some schools an average of 5% of the entire school population are being referred each year and the exceptional education population is increasing. Why, beyond the problems based on definitional criteria mentioned above, is there such a high rate of student referral for suspected learning disabilities?

2. Write one question you have about the definition and criteria for learning disabilities as it relates to screening.

Screening decisions in the area of learning disabilities must be based on factors beyond student characteristics. The screening process must start with teachers being aware of what is expected for a specific group of students. The definition of expectations is elaborated on in the following paper.

Expectations

Expectations play a critical role in education. Dictionary definitions refer to an expectation as something considered likely or certain, something considered obligatory, or something required. Applied to education, the term refers to the values or standards held by others for student behavior and performance.

The "others" who set standards include family, friends, teachers, administrators, school boards, and the community. In addition, students set standards for their own behavior and performance.

The standards may be set - rightfully or wrongfully - according to the student's age, sex, socio-economic status, grade level, or other factors.

Standards or expectations then affect the educator's choice of methods, materials, and strategies. Plus, student competency is judged in reference to expectations.

For example, a teacher may expect his/her fourth graders to read aloud fluently with expression to indicate understanding of the material. If a fourth grader - Bill in this example - doesn't differentiate between a period and a question mark in his oral reading, the teacher judges him incompetent in respect to this expectation.

The expectation in the example above is explicit. The teacher is aware of his/her expectation and can define it.

Expectations can be implicit. These standards are more troublesome. The teacher may not recognize his/her implied expectations or those of the instructional program or material. Expectations that are unclear to the teacher certainly won't be clear to the student.

For example, the teacher may ask Bill questions to check his reading comprehension. Bill may respond with a "yes," "no," or brief phrase, then comment on tangential information. The teacher's implied or implicit expectations were that Bill would answer with a complete sentence and provide details to support his answer.

Bill failed to meet the teacher's expectations, but a more accurate description of the situation would be: The teacher failed to clarify his/her expectations, communicate them, and develop an appropriate program so that Bill would meet those expectations.

Bill's classmate John may somehow "know" how he is expected to answer reading comprehension questions. Perhaps John's previous teacher expected the same. But John may serve as an example for the problem of implied expectations built into the reading material. John may not know a glossary is printed in the back of the book; and even if he did, he may not know how to use it to find the definition of an unfamiliar word.

These two examples indicate the need for the teacher to define his/her expectations and to examine expectations of the instructional program or materials. Only then can an educator break the cycle of teacher expectations.

The cycle of teacher expectations begins with the teacher's perceptions of the student. These perceptions may be based on the following factors: intelligence test results, sex, name, cumulative folder, ethnic background, knowledge of siblings, physical characteristics, previous achievement, socio-economic status, and student input.

The teacher's expectations lead him/her to form expectations of the student's behavior and academic performance. Research indicates that teachers tend to create a reality commensurate with their perceptions.

For example, if Bill's reading comprehension test scores are low, the teacher may assume Bill simply doesn't know the answer when he hesitates after he/she asks Bill a reading comprehension question. (The idea that Bill may just be thinking and formulating his answer doesn't even cross the teacher's mind.)

The teacher may prompt Bill, give him the answer, or call on another student. The teacher later may avoid asking Bill comprehension questions out of fear he/she will embarrass or demoralize Bill in front of his peers. Obviously, the teacher's expectations are influencing his/her actions toward Bill.

A student generally responds by exhibiting behavior which complements and reinforces the teacher's expectations.

In Bill's case, he may learn that if he doesn't answer immediately, the teacher will take the pressure off him and he won't have to risk giving a wrong answer; or he may not even get the practice if the teacher stops calling on him.

The cycle of teacher expectations must be broken before a student can make any progress.

Step one in breaking the cycle is to clarify expectations. Going back to Bill's oral reading problem, the teacher must be aware of his/her expectation that Bill will indicate punctuation by his expression when he reads aloud.

Step two is to decide if expectations are realistic. If Bill doesn't have the prerequisite skills of recognizing punctuation marks and their meanings, the teacher would be unrealistic in expecting him to read aloud with meaning. Or, if Bill has the prerequisite skills, the teacher has to look for motivational factors that might be influencing his performance.

Step three follows logically: Change expectations. For example, the teacher may develop a series of instructional objectives for Bill. He will identify periods and question marks in sentences; he will identify whether a sentence is telling or asking something; when he reads statements and questions aloud, he will indicate ending punctuation by his inflection; he will critique his own use of inflection from recorded reading samples.

The instructional objectives address a proposed change in behavior, indicate who will do what under which circumstances, and allow evaluation of behavior change.

Step four in breaking the cycle of teacher expectations is to change actions. The teacher provides instruction and practice geared to the modified instructional objectives.

When a teacher modifies instructional objectives, he/she has not necessarily lowered expectations. In fact, expectations may be upgraded when the teacher gives proper attention to the skills a student brings to the learning situation. The initial adjustments actually can lead to greater success.

For Further Thought:

1. Write five expectations you have for student academic performance/behavior in one setting (a class period or learning activity).

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

2. Describe the differences between teacher expectations and learning objectives.

3. Write a question you have about expectations.

Once a teacher knows what is expected of a specific group of students, the teacher must look at student performance. The concept of "match-mismatch" is useful in detecting discrepancies between teacher expectations and student performance/behavior. The concept is explained in the section that follows.

Match-Mismatch

For most students, teacher expectations are relatively consistent with student performance. Performance and expectations "match."

With other students, teachers may have expectations that are not consistent with observation of the student's performance, resulting in a "mismatch."

The decision process for educational screening is based on this "match-mismatch" approach to screening for learning disabilities.

A match is behavior or academic performance compatible with expectations. For example, the teacher may expect a fourth grader to read aloud fluently with expression to indicate understanding of the material. If Bill, a fourth grader, meets that expectation, his academic performance "matches" the teacher's expectation.

A mismatch is a discrepancy between behavior or academic performance and expectations. For example, if Bill doesn't change his inflection for periods and question marks, his academic performance and the teacher's expectations indicate a mismatch.

The teacher can apply this match-mismatch idea when he/she is concerned about a student's social behavior, study skills, or academic performance.

The procedure is straightforward and can easily be carried out in the classroom. The match-mismatch procedure lends itself to early detection of problems and further assessment to determine specific mismatches between expectations and social behavior, study skills, or academic performance.

The teacher begins by noting tasks he/she expects the student to complete, then the teacher observes the student's behavior or performance in relation to those expectations. The teacher is looking for matches and mismatches. Obviously, the matches are not the area of concern.

When the teacher notes a mismatch, he/she narrows the mismatch from - for example - academic performance to reading to reading level to oral reading activities to the specific reading skills for which the student's performance does not match the teacher's expectation.

The match-mismatch procedure offers a structure for defining what the teacher expects a student to do and what he/she actually does. Analyzing this information is critical to further steps in the instructional decision making process.

For Further Thought:

1. The focus of screening using the match-mismatch approach is on the learning situation in which the problematic behavior occurs. How does this differ from the focus of other methods of screening?

2. List areas that may need to be assessed and changed as the result of finding "mismatches" in academic learning situations.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

e. _____

3. Write a question you have about match-mismatch as it applies to screening.

A Learning Quiz

To assist you in evaluating your understanding of issues involved in Decisions: A Process for Screening Educational Problems in the Classroom, answer the following questions. References to pages with answers to the questions follow each question in parenthesis.

1. Screening, using a decision making process, simply refers to _____ and _____ individuals to identify those who may be exceptional. (Page 11)
2. The most important potential benefit of working through the cases in this workshop is _____. (Page 12)
3. The initial definition of the "problem" influences how people gather and interpret data by narrowing their focus as to: (Page 15)
 - a. _____.
 - b. _____.
 - c. _____.
4. Two features that a "naturalistic" paradigm for disciplined inquiry has to recommend it are: (Page 15)
 - a. _____.
 - b. _____.
5. The basic premise of the teaching assistance team is that (who) _____ has/have responsibility for the successful education of:
_____ every student in the classroom.
_____ every student in the school. (Page 17)
6. Teachers should be required to bring their problems to a teaching assistance team prior to initiating an EEN referral. (circle one)
True or False (Page 17)
7. Two ways the teaching assistance team helps teachers are:
 - a. _____.
 - b. _____.(Page 17)

8. Research suggests that a national level of _____ percent of the children referred were placed in exceptional education. (Page 17)

9. Because many of the characteristics ascribed to the learning disabled are also common to immature children or individuals with other handicapping conditions, the screening process must start with _____
_____. (Page 21)

10. The term _____ refers to student behavior/ performance which is compatible with the expectations that exist in a given learning situation. (Page 27)

11. Research supports the fact that teacher's perceptions of students influence their expectations, and that teachers tend to _____ their perceptions. (Page 24)

12. The cycle of teacher expectations is broken by taking these four steps:

a. _____.

b. _____.

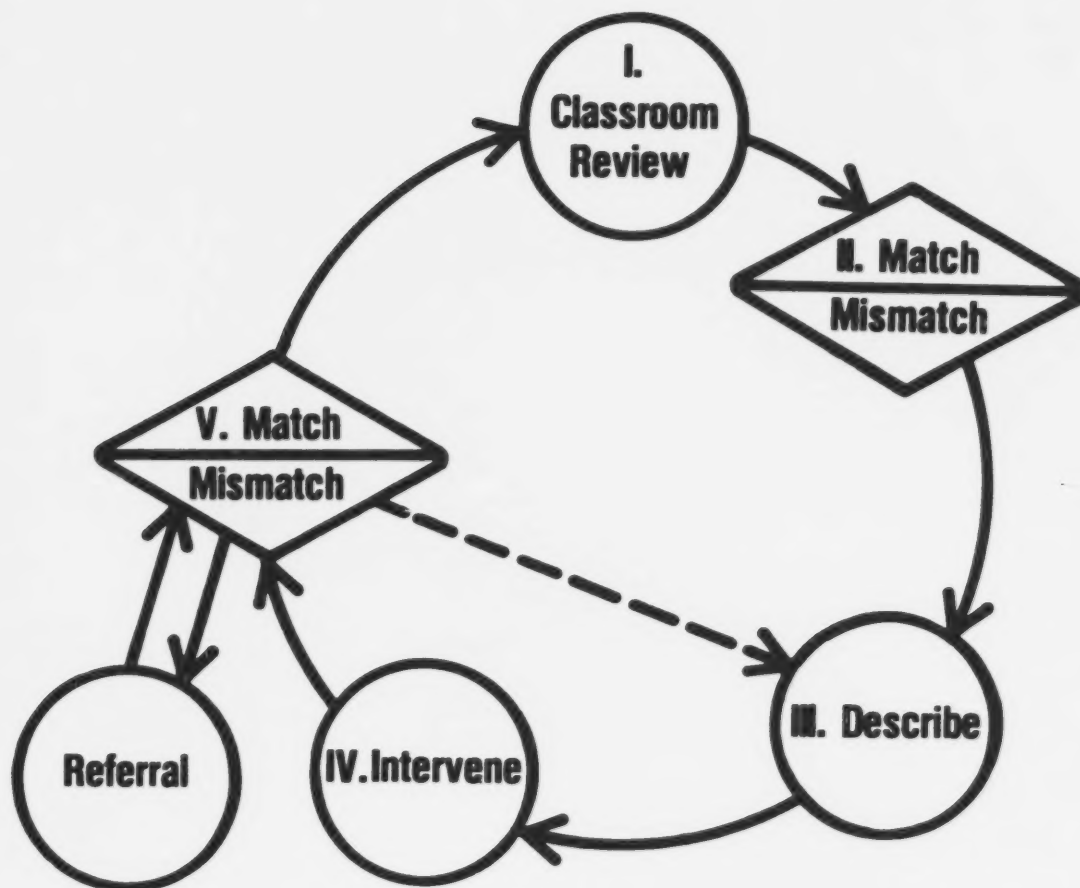
c. _____.

d. _____. (Page 24)

Note: For preferred answers, see the "key" to the Learning Quiz in the Appendix.

DECISIONS

A process for screening educational problems in the classroom.



The Decision Process

I. Classroom Review

Teachers continuously review student performance/behavior as they teach. They make judgments about student competency by comparing students across peers, over time, and across tasks. They also compare student performance/behavior to the expectations held in that setting. Based on feedback, teachers modify their teaching techniques, activities, and their expectations. Classroom screening consists of all these teaching behaviors, as well as the following activities to confirm teacher judgments.

- A. Identify matches and mismatches between student performance/behavior and teacher expectations.
 - 1. Define teacher expectations.
 - 2. Communicate expectations.
 - 3. Review student records.
 - 4. Review exhibited behavior.
- B. Resolve the mismatch(es).
 - 1. Gather more data (III. Describe).
 - 2. Develop and implement an intervention strategy (IV. Intervene).
 - 3. If strategy resolves the mismatch(es), document the action taken and the outcomes. Student returns to classroom review (I.).
 - 4. If strategy does not resolve the mismatch, continue on to decision point (II. Match-Mismatch).

II. Match-Mismatch

This is a decision point. Are there students whose performance/behavior doesn't meet teacher expectations?

- A. Is there a reasonable cause to believe a handicapping condition may exist? If so, an EEN referral is indicated. Referral does not preclude completing the screening process. Continue on to III. Describe.

A reasonable cause to believe a student may have handicapping condition is supported by documentation such as behavioral observations, classroom interventions, and other sources of relevant data.
- B. Is a non-EEN referral indicated? If so, make the referral and continue screening (III. Describe).

NOTE: Worksheets to assist you in carrying out screening are found in the appendix. See Screening Worksheet Packet.

- C. Is some other regular education program or curriculum change indicated? If so, take the needed action. The student then returns to classroom review (I.).
- D. If the mismatch has been resolved and a referral is not indicated, the student returns to classroom review (I.).

■ Describe

The steps outlined below will assist teachers in selecting ways to approach the problem situations in their classrooms. The steps provide rules of thumb for generating and answering questions. The questions that are asked prescribe the data that will be gathered and help to make sense out of that data.

- A. Write a tentative problem statement (broadly defined).
- B. Verify the problem by gathering information relevant to the situation.
 - 1. Identify the purpose of the lesson.
 - 2. Identify the expectations for all students in the setting.
 - 3. Observe student performance/behavior.
 - 4. Identify the matches and mismatches between student performance/behavior and expectations.
 - 5. Identify the underlying problems that may be contributing to the situation.
 - 6. Determine if the underlying problems are primarily teacher factors, student factors, or classroom variables.
 - 7. Choose one underlying problem to work on first.
 - 8. List the things you know about the underlying problem.
 - 9. Identify the questions that need to be answered concerning that problem.
 - 10. Identify the means of answering the questions.
 - 11. Take the action needed to answer the questions.
- C. Analyze the data, draw conclusions, and brainstorm alternatives for resolving the problem.
 - 1. State your conclusions about the nature of the problem.
 - 2. List all the alternatives you can think of for resolving the problem, including classroom interventions.
 - 3. Identify the best classroom intervention to use in attempting to resolve the problem.

IV. Intervene

Once the available information about the problem has been gathered and examined and alternatives for dealing with the problem have been listed, teachers are in the best position to plan for problem resolution. The steps in planning an effective intervention are listed below.

A. Write an overall intervention plan that contains:

1. A clearly defined problem statement.
2. A goal statement that addresses what the teacher wants the student to do.
3. A statement of the best course(s) of action to pursue in achieving the goal.

B. Write a classroom intervention plan that contains:

1. Measureable learning objective steps to achieve the goals.
2. Details of the teaching procedures that the teacher will use to reach the objectives.
3. A specific time period for operation of the intervention plan.
4. Documentation to be generated to establish and support the outcome of the intervention plan.
5. A description of how the intervention plan data will be shared with other concerned parties.

V. Match-Mismatch

This is a decision point. Are there students whose performance/behavior doesn't meet teacher expectations?

-Is there a reasonable cause to believe a handicapping condition may exist? If so, an EEN referral is indicated. Referral does not preclude completing the screening process. Continue recycling through III. Describe and IV. Intervene as needed.

-Is a non-EEN referral indicated? If so, make the referral and continue screening (III. Describe).

-Is some other regular education program or curriculum change indicated? If so, take the needed action and the student returns to classroom review (I.).

If the mismatch has been resolved and a referral is not indicated, the student returns to classroom review (I.).



■. Describe

A. Tentative Problem Statement

Name:

Student:

Grade Level:

1. Write a tentative problem statement. Define the problem as broadly as possible.



III. Describe

B. Gathering Information

The worksheet below will help you answer the following questions.

1. What is the purpose of the lesson (activity)?
2. What are the expectations for students in this setting?
3. How are the students performing in this lesson?
4. What matches and mismatches exist between the expectations and student performance?

* * * * *

Teaching activity: _____

Purpose of the teaching activity: _____

List two or three of the most important expectations that exist in this lesson (activity). Then, record your observations of student performance relative to each expectation. Finally, record the matches and mismatches involving groups or individual students.

Expectations	Observations	Match (Name)	Mismatch (Name)



III. Describe (continued)

B. Gathering Information (continued)

The worksheet below will help you answer the following questions.

5. What underlying problem(s) may be contributing to the mismatch(es)?
 - a. Use the checklist of Contributing Factors that follows as a "laundry list" to be sure you have considered the important variables that research says affect student learning.
 - b. List the underlying problems below.
6. Are the underlying problems primarily teacher factors, classroom factors, or student factors? (Check the primary factor that is contributing to each problem.)

	Mismatches	Underlying problem(s)	Teacher Factor	Classroom Factor	Student Factor
1.					
2.					
3.					

Checklist of Contributing Factors

Check all factors that you think may be contributing to the problem situation. These checkmarks should indicate specific items that you think need further analysis or change. Finally, consider the interaction of the factors you have identified. (Hint: Start by quickly looking over the major categories listed below. If a category seems to be important, then scan the specific items.)

TEACHER FACTORS

Comments

- ☐ Attitude toward student.
- ☐ Expectations of student performance.
- ☐ Expertise to accomplish objectives.

CLASSROOM FACTORS

Time

- ☐ Amount of time assigned to this academic activity.
- ☐ Amount of time during activity spent on management and discipline.

Relationship between Goals and Content

- ☐ Definition of the scope and sequence of instruction in this area.
- ☐ Definition of the goals and objectives of instruction in this area/unit/activity.
- ☐ Reinforcement of the previous instruction.
- ☐ Foundation laid for subsequent instruction.
- ☐ Reinforcement of critical skills in different content areas.

Relationships between Content and Measures

- ☐ Relationship between content requirements and the kinds of measures used to assess student outcomes.
- ☐ Relationship between stated goals and the instructional content.
- ☐ Presentation of the concepts that will be measured.
- ☐ Presentation of test item formats that might be used.

Structuring of Classroom Activities

- ☐ Lesson plans:
 - specification of instructional objectives.
 - Teaching methods.
 - Progression of instructional units.

Source: Adapted from Connolly, John A. and Janet McGrail, School Variables Affecting Student Learning. Draft. (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education (DHEW), 1978, 1-67.

Checklist of Contributing Factors

Structuring of Classroom Activities (cont.)	Comments
-Frequency of monitoring of student progress. -Provisions for feedback. ___ Structural changes to fit specific academic and interpersonal goals: -Individual work (tutorial, seat work, self-paced, self-selected). -Group work (small group, large group, cooperative or competitive).	
Student Placement	
___ Use of systematic procedures to assign students to instructional groups: -Use of multiple procedures (e.g. test performance data, teacher judgment, student recommendations, progress reports) to assign students to instructional groups. -Appropriateness of group placement.	
Verbal Interactions and Reinforcement	
___ Teacher-student exchanges: -Focus of exchanges. -Involvement of all students regardless of the student's sex, race, or socioeconomic status. -Encouragement to use higher level thought processes. -Encouragement to pursue learning on student's own. -Encouragement to increase number of and improve quality of student questions. ___ Feedback on student responses or questions, tests, and written assignments: -Accuracy. -Promptness. ___ Student-student exchanges: -Focus of exchanges. -Structure of exchanges.	
Classroom Control	
___ Definition of expectations for student behavior. ___ Consistency of evaluating students' behaviors. ___ Consistency of applying disciplinary actions. ___ Routines for handling student groups and transitions from group to group and activity to activity.	

Checklist of Contributing Factors

Structure of Materials

Comments

- ☐ Instructional materials/activities:
 - Match to individual student's needs.
 - Inclusion of specific objectives.
 - Sequence of activities, assessments, and feedback to students.
 - Appropriateness for the student (according to age, environment, cultural heritage).
 - Variety.
 - Attractiveness.
 - Diversity of techniques (audio tape, A-V material, concrete experience).

Classroom Environment

- Relationship between student's needs and physical setting and facilities.

STUDENT FACTORS

Task Related Behavior

- ☐ School attendance.
- ☐ Asking and answering questions.
- ☐ Attending behavior.
- ☐ Classroom discussion.
- ☐ Completing tasks.
- ☐ Following directions.
- ☐ Group activities.
- ☐ Independent work.
- ☐ On-task behavior.
- ☐ Performing in front of others. (oral reading, book report, speech, presentation, etc.)
- ☐ Quality of work.
- ☐ Other.

Interpersonal Behavior

- ☐ Accepting authority.
- ☐ Coping with conflict.
- ☐ Gaining attention.
- ☐ Greeting others.
- ☐ Helping others.
- ☐ Making conversation.
- ☐ Organized play.
- ☐ Positive attitude toward others.
- ☐ Playing informally.
- ☐ Property - own and other's.
- ☐ Other.

Self Related Behavior

- ☐ Accepting consequences.
- ☐ Ethical behavior.
- ☐ Expressing feelings.

Checklist of Contributing Factors

Self Related Behavior (cont.)

Comments

- ☐ Positive attitude toward self.
- ☐ Responsible behavior.
- ☐ Self-care.
- ☐ Other.

Language Comprehension

- ☐ Listening to and understanding oral and written language:
 - Vocabulary.
 - Syntax (sentence structure).

Language Production

- ☐ Speaking and writing language:
 - Simple sentences.
 - Complex sentences.

Language Function

- ☐ Asking questions.
- ☐ Guessing information.
- ☐ Engaging in conversation about specific academic tasks.

Conceptual and Thinking Skills

- ☐ Requisites for the academic task:
 - Sorting.
 - Regrouping.
 - Time.
 - Space.
 - Sequencing
 - Conserving.
 - Cause and effect.
 - Critical thinking.

Academic Skills

- ☐ Requisites for reading task:
 - Series _____
 - Grade level _____
- ☐ Requisites for mathematics task:
 - Series _____
 - Grade level _____
- ☐ Requisites for the writing task:
 - Grade level _____

Expectations for Self/Teacher

- ☐ Match teacher expectations.
- ☐ Do not match teacher expectations.

Interest in Learning

- ☐ Yes.
- ☐ Uncertain.
- ☐ Not noticeable.



■ Describe (continued)

B. Gathering Information (continued)

7. Which of the underlying problems needs attention first. Use the Criteria for "good" problem definition below in making your decision.

Criteria for "good" problem definition

1. Names the immediate issue and defines it in a way that calls for action-oriented answers.
2. Puts the issue in a proper educational strategy context; that is, the broader issue.
3. Problem lends itself to effective teacher controlled change, recognizing all the responsibilities and the scope of authority, as well as the limitations associated with that position. Definition considers who controls the change options:
 - others;
 - others with some minor adjustments possible;
 - teacher who is free to change unit of organization (independent units);
 - teacher who has access to other services (Chapter I, teaching aides, peer tutors);
 - bureacracy.
4. Deals with a problem that, when fixed, will result in concrete improvements in student learning.

The problem you have chosen to work on first is: _____

8. What do you know about this problem? List the things you know here.



■. Describe (continued)

B. Gathering Information (continued)

9. What questions need to be answered?

10. How can I answer these questions?

Case Files

Tips on what to look for in records

Documents in Student Records

1. Standardized tests:
 - achievement.
 - readiness.
 - group I.Q.
 - other

The scores reported on any of these instruments can be questioned regarding their reliability and validity. No single test should be used to verify a student's abilities or behavior. It is not unusual to find discrepancies between test scores on different tests that purport to measure the same attributes. Discrepancies between test scores and classroom performance are also common. To resolve these discrepancies: Do an analysis of the test items to determine what they are actually measuring; re-administer the items taking note of the student's test taking behavior; search for other test related factors that would explain the discrepancies; develop an informal task to test the attributes in an instructional setting. In the final analysis, the teacher's observations and interactions with students in the classroom are the most valuable source of data on student abilities.

2. Medical anomalies.
3. Medication side-effects.
4. Attendance irregularities.
5. Family mobility.
6. Student age.
7. Previous referrals for various educational and supportive services.
8. Student's residence.
9. Cultural or language differences.

All Documents

1. Proof that exists for the problem and what it is: Fact, opinion, or assumption.
2. Symptoms that suggest these are the real problems in the case.
3. How the problems are defined and related. Are they independent, or are they the result of a deeper problem?
4. Ramifications of these problems in the short run and long run.



■. Describe (continued)

B. Gathering Information (continued)

11. What information is there in the case file that clarifies this problem?

Source/Person

Date

Data/Comments



- C. Analyze the data, draw conclusions, and brainstorm alternatives.
1. What conclusions have you drawn about the nature of the problem?
2. Do you want to revise the problem statement? If so, write it here.
3. What are all of the possible alternatives you can think of for dealing with the problems?
 - List all you can think of on your own.
 - Then, brainstorm with your colleagues using the guidelines that follow.
 - Identify the pluses and minuses of each alternative. For example: The cost is prohibitive or the help is not immediately available.

[illegible]

Guidelines for Brainstorming and Group Voting

Throughout the workshop and particularly in the early stages of planning to resolve a problem, group brainstorming and voting will help you to arrive at decisions quickly and fairly. Begin by choosing a group recorder to write down everything that is said and, later, to tally the points each alternative (idea) receives during voting. Here are several suggestions that will make these brainstorming and group voting sessions more effective.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a way of bringing out each person's creative ideas quickly and effectively. Here are several suggestions for making brainstorming effective.

- Go around the group in a circle, each person giving one idea.
- Repeat until all ideas are exhausted.
- If you have no idea, simply pass.
- Expanding on others' ideas is encouraged.
- List as many ideas as possible.
- Absolutely no criticism of an idea is allowed. Criticism stifles creativity.
- Ideas can be as crazy and extravagant as possible. You will evaluate them later through modified voting.
- Clarification may be sought.
- Move as quickly as possible. Be brief when stating an idea.
- Set a time limit. People brainstorm better under pressure.

Group Voting

Group voting is a way of helping the group decide efficiently which ideas they are going to adopt. This is the stage where you analyze, criticize, and judge the worth of the ideas you have come up with as a group during brainstorming.

First, you must identify the criteria or goals that must be considered in your deliberation on each alternative. In this case the criteria for classroom interventions may consist of the following:

- High probability that you (the teacher) will implement the alternative.
- The amount of work required to carry out the idea is reasonable.
- High probability that the idea will lead to a successful resolution of the problem.
- The intervention best solves the problem and minimizes the creation of new problems, given the constraints in this situation.

(PLEASE GENERATE 2 OR 3 OF YOUR OWN CRITERIA. THESE ARE ONLY SUGGESTED CRITERIA.)



IV. Intervene

A. Intervention Plan

1. Problem statement:
2. Goal statement(s):
3. The best course(s) of action to pursue:

B. Classroom Intervention

1. Learning objective(s):

2. Teaching procedures:	3. Time:	4. Documentation of success

5. Specify the date and method of sharing this information with others involved.

Intervention Planning Considerations

Factors to Consider

1. Expectations for behavior:
 - implicit in a given setting.
 - held by individuals in a given setting.
2. Constraints and opportunities available in the setting:
 - physical surroundings.
 - program, space, time.
3. Characteristics of:
 - student.
 - significant others.

Questions to Answer

1. What does the student need to do to function successfully in a given setting?
2. What behavior is the student currently demonstrating?
3. Does the student have prerequisite behavior?
4. What will facilitate desired behavior in this environment?

General Guidelines

1. Include all details necessary for successful implementation.
2. Be very specific and spell out procedures concisely.
3. When in doubt, consult with a colleague.

Specific Guidelines

1. Indicate exactly what participants will do and say.
2. Describe the scene, necessary props, facial expressions, body language.
3. Provide time limits.
4. Brainstorm possible reasons why the teaching procedure may fail.
5. Suggest alternatives.



IV. Intervene (continued)

Use this worksheet to record other ideas and your long range follow-up plan.

C. Alternative Intervention Ideas

D. Follow-up Plan



Name: _____

School: _____

Things I Want to Learn More About

Content area: _____

Specific content: _____

Names of staff members in my building:

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Who above has attended a class, workshop, convention sectional, etc. or done study on his/her own dealing with this content?

Name

Activity

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Who in your building could help? (Administrator, Principal, Guidance Counselor, Speech and Language Clinician, Chapter I Teacher, School Nurse, Teacher's Aide, etc.) (Also, consider committees, junior high or senior high staff, and services.)

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Sources of information and assistance

Local:

- Other public schools in area
- Community volunteer groups
- Charitable organizations
- Private schools and their resources
- Educational electronic communication networks
- Public library
- Education related organizations
- Universities and colleges
- Private remedial education facilities

Regional:

- County Handicapped Children's Education Boards
- Cooperative Educational Service Agencies

State:

- University Extension courses
- Educational TV and radio networks

Other:

Names of people with expertise in this content area (local, regional, state, national):

Suggested activities to acquire this information or assistance:

Annotated List of Resource Materials Reading/Language Arts

Alexander, J. Estill, ed. Teaching Reading. Boston: Little, Brown, 1979.
(also, 2nd ed., 1983.)

This text was developed by the reading/language arts faculty at the University of Tennessee for use in an elementary reading methods course. Part One, "Foundations," deals with the nature of the reading act and the readiness skills and abilities learners need to process print. Part Two, "Recognizing Words," discusses five word recognition techniques - sight vocabulary, phonics, context clues, structural analysis, and dictionary aids to pronunciation. Part Three, "Getting Meaning," covers comprehension and includes: vocabulary development, basic comprehension skills, questioning techniques, critical and creative reading, study skills, and content area reading. Part Four, "Approaches," discusses ways teachers provide instructional frameworks for developing word recognition skills and comprehension abilities. Part Five, "Program Planning," covers five areas: attitudes and interests, evaluation of reading performance, classroom organization, parental involvement in programs, and the history of reading instruction. There is a comprehensive bibliography at the end of the text.

Arekerman, R.C. Approaches To Beginning Reading. New York: Willey, 1971.

This text describes the basic approaches to reading in chapters which include: 12 basic phonemic or phonics approaches, two phonemic-pronunciation approaches, three phonemic-reading approaches, nine linguistic-phonemic approaches, eight "total" language-arts approaches, three language-experience approaches, seven one-to-one sound symbol approaches, an individualized reading approach, eight early-reading approaches, and a perceptual discrimination approach. Each of the 10 chapters begins with a description of features of the approach, followed by its origin and methods of delivery. Specific published programs are listed with materials, methods and research findings. Each chapter contains a conclusion evaluating the programs and an extensive bibliography.

Bond, G.L., and M.A. Tinker. Reading Difficulties, Their Diagnosis and Correction. 2nd ed. New York: Appleton, 1967.

This classic text deals with correcting various reading difficulties. The principles of reading instruction and the nature and causes of reading difficulties are overviewed. The major sections present diagnosis and remediation ideas along with specific "tried and safe" techniques to enhance recognition, comprehension, reading rate, and reading in the content areas. Each chapter ending identifies appropriate diagnostic tests and contains a short bibliography. The text describes the behaviors accompanying different types of reading problems and suggests remediation alternatives.

Carnine, D., and J. Silbert. Direct Instructional Reading. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1979.

This book provides ideas on how to deal with student variability in benefiting from reading instruction. It presents carefully sequenced

procedures for teaching decoding, comprehension, content area, and study skills. These specific procedures are intended for hard-to-teach, as well as high ability students.

Dechant, Emerald. Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disabilities. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1981.

This book attempts to put into one volume everything that is relevant to dealing with disabled readers. Diagnosis is emphasized, but remediation is also covered. Part I, "Identifying the Difficulty," contains one chapter on the screening process. Part II, "Detailed Diagnosis of Reading Disability," contains three chapters: "Gathering Information About the Pupil"; "Diagnostic Testing"; and "Identifying the Severity or Type of Disability." Part III, "Investigating the Causes of Reading Disability," contains three chapters: "Maturation, Experience, Intelligence, Attention, and Language Factors"; "Physical and Psychological Factors"; and "Interest, Motivation, Personal and Social Development, and Learning Variables." Part IV, "Remediation of Reading Disability," contains five chapters: "Methods of Word Identification"; "Developing the Enabling Skills"; "Remediating Specific Word-Identification Difficulties"; "Remediating Word-Meaning Difficulties"; and "Remediating Higher-Level Comprehension and Functional-Reading Difficulties." Part V, "Organizing for Effective Corrective and Remedial Instruction," is the concluding chapter.

Ekwall, Eldon E., and J.L. Shanker. Diagnosis and Remediation of the Disabled Reader. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1976. (also, 1983 ed.)

This book is designed for students taking a first course in diagnosis and/or remediation of reading disabilities. Chapter 1 discusses reasons for pupil failure in reading. Chapter 2 outlines operational procedures. Chapter 3 contains a framework for examining educational problems in reading diagnosis and remediation. Chapters 4 to 8 discuss diagnosis and remediation in terms of educational, psychological, sociological, and physical factors. Chapter 9 discusses diagnosis and treatment of severe learning disabilities. The remaining chapters deal with additional diagnostic and remedial techniques and administrative procedures. Chapter 16 covers the interpretation of tests and research results. Four appendices include: the "Ekwall Phonics Survey," "Related Tests and Inventories," "Commercial Materials for Teaching Reading Skills in a Remedial Center," and "Names and Addresses of Companies That Publish Materials for Use in Reading."

Gilliland, H. A Practical Guide To Remedial Reading. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1974.

This text addresses all steps in evaluating and teaching students with possible reading difficulties. The first six chapters describe remedial reading, how to instructionally diagnose reading problems, how to alleviate the causes, and how to determine the student's reading level. Chapter 6 gives suggestions on how to organize instruction, examples of lesson plans and their evaluation. Oral reading problems are dealt with in Chapter 7 using an instructional guide that gives specific alternatives. Chapters 8 and 9 deal with word recognition and comprehension in the same way. Chapter 12 gives a basic overview of a

learning disabled child and Chapter 13 is a summary of different types of remedial material including programmed materials, newspapers, tape recordings, projected reading materials, overhead and opaque projectors, controlled readers, tachistoscopes, and reading games.

Harris, T.L., and R.E. Hodges. A Dictionary of Reading and Related Terms. Newark, DE: International Reading Assn., 1981.

The major purpose of this book is to define salient terms in reading and related disciplines. The book contains approximately 5,400 terms with meanings and illustrative examples, and was created to serve a wide spectrum of users, from interested parents to reading specialists. A bibliography found at the end of the book lists: "Books on Reading and Supporting Fields"; "Books on Linguistics"; "Journals"; and "Specialized Dictionaries and Handbooks."

Pearson, P. David, and Dale D. Johnson. Teaching Reading Comprehension. New York: Holt, 1978.

This text is intended to be used as a supplement in reading methods courses. The examples used cut across primary-intermediate-secondary levels of instruction. The volume integrates theory and practice. Chapters 1, 2, and 3 provide a backdrop of issues and conflicts in comprehension instruction, the psychological and environmental factors that influence comprehension processes, and a model of comprehension processes based on semantic mapping. Chapters 4 to 9 focus on specific comprehension tasks relating to words, sentences, and larger units of discourse. Each task is described with a rationale and instructional guidelines for teaching. The text also presents questions and discussion strategies for promoting reading. Chapters 10 to 11 discuss the assessment of reading comprehension and relate assessment to the tasks dealt with earlier. Chapter 11 contains a summary of the authors' hoped for outcomes in writing the book.

Rupley, William H., and T.R. Blair. Reading Diagnosis and Remediation: Classroom and Clinic. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1979.

This book deals with those teacher beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors likely to contribute to student achievement in reading. Part 1, "Foundations of Reading Diagnosis and Remediation," discusses the variables related to reading and the purposes reading serves in school and society. Part 2, "Diagnosis and Correction of Specific Reading Problems," covers the four major areas of reading instruction. Each area is treated separately, with suggestions for diagnosis and correction/remediation. Part 3, "Classroom Diagnosis and Correction," highlights the regular classroom teacher's responsibilities in individualizing instruction. Part 4, "Clinical Diagnosis and Remediation," covers the necessary attitudes, knowledge, and skills reading resource teachers need to help children with reading problems outside the regular classroom. Each chapter contains examples, case studies, and exercises. Two appendices include: "Case Reports" and "Annotated Listing of Tests," followed by a subject index and author index.

Smith, Frank. Comprehension and Learning: A Conceptual Framework for Teachers. New York: Holt, 1975.

This text is designed for educational psychology courses; it is not a methods book. The first three chapters cover comprehension. Chapter 1 defines comprehension and relates it to diverse psychological topics. Chapter 2 covers psychological factors that restrict comprehension, including the brain's limitations. Chapter 3 discusses comprehension and language. The next three chapters discuss learning. Chapter 4 analyzes learning and comprehension. Chapter 5 specifies aspects of learning, including concept learning and memorization. Chapter 6 covers how children develop speech, and the nature of reading and writing. Chapter 7 covers how identical individuals develop differences in language and learning. Chapter 8 examines instruction itself, including observations on teachers.

Smith, Frank. Reading Without Nonsense. New York: Teachers College Press, 1978.

This book is directed to a varied audience, from teacher-trainers to parents, and has a scientific orientation without being technical. The book primarily deals with 1) the process of reading, 2) the perceptual and language skills involved in reading, and 3) the task of learning to read. The tone of the book is instructional. It covers a range of topics, from reading and the brain to tunnel vision, short and long-term memory, phonics, surface structure and meaning, reading comprehension, and the teacher's role in teaching reading. Smith emphasizes the responsibility of teachers to choose materials and methods that will make reading easy. For a more technical discussion of reading, Smith recommends his book Understanding Reading (Holt, 1978).

Smith, Frank. Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read. 3rd ed. New York: Holt, 1982.

This book is designed as a handbook for language arts teachers and as a basic text on the psychology of reading. A reference section at the end of the book provides a list of relevant research literature on reading. The text has 13 chapters. More than half are devoted to such topics as language, information theory, learning theory, development of spoken language ability, and physiology of the eye and brain. The text concentrates on fundamental aspects of reading - linguistic, psychological, social, and physiological - and is not a book about reading instruction.

Thompson, R.A. Treasury of Teaching Activities for Elementary Language Arts. West Nyack, NY: Parker Publishing, 1975.

This text lists 300 creative teaching ideas including games, puzzles, and activities for individual and group development of basic communication skills.

Writing - Books

Calkins, Lucy McCormick. Lessons From a Child. Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books, 1983.

A useful description of the writing process from the perspective of one child's growth.

Graves, Donald H. A Researcher Learns to Write. Exeter, NH: Heinemann, 1984.

Selected articles and monographs from Graves' work over the last 10 years. A view of author as researcher and writer.

Graves, Donald H. Writing: Teachers and Children at Work. Exeter, NH: Heinemann, 1982.

Mainly based on National Institute of Education study conducted in Atkinson, NH, from 1978 to 1980. First part of book emphasizes teacher activity and second, child growth. Especially valuable for conferencing techniques.

Haley-James, Shirley, ed. Perspectives on Writing in Grades 1-8. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1981.

Articles by members of the National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Teaching Written Composition in Elementary Schools. Considers the conflict in theories on how to teach writing while posing questions still to be researched.

Moffett, James, and Betty Jane Wagner. Student-Centered Language Arts and Reading, K-13: A Handbook for Teachers. Boston: Houghton, 1976.

A text combining the psychology of language and development and ideas for the application of theory. An excellent alternative to language basals.

Murray, Donald M. Learning by Teaching. Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook Pub., 1982.

Articles concentrating on author's growth in understanding the writing and teaching processes. Excellent insight into a professional writer's thought processes as he writes and teaches.

Myers, Miles, and James Gray, ed. Theory and Practice in the Teaching of Composition. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, 1983.

A collection of articles by teachers and researchers involved in the National Writing Project. Includes approaches to teaching composition based on research and teachers' practices.

Newkirk, Thomas, and Nancie Atwell, ed. Understanding Writing: Ways of Observing, Learning, and Teaching. Chelmsford, MA: Northeast Regional Exchange, Inc., 1982.

A collection of articles by teachers who have observed their students and learned while teaching.

Smith, Frank. Writing and the Writer. New York: Holt, 1982.

This book discusses the psychology of the writing act, the way individuals develop and perform various skills enabling them to write, and the consequences learning to write and the act of writing have on those who write. The book examines the conventions of grammar, spelling, and punctuation, as well as the creative process of writing. It particularly examines how writing skills are learned and orchestrated. A variety of types of writing are considered, as are types of writers. It is directed to anyone interested in writing, from college teachers of cognitive psychology to professional writers.

Writing - Magazine Articles

Smith, Frank. "Demonstrations, Engagement and Sensitivity: The Choice Between People and Programs." Language Arts 58 (1981): 634-42.

The author considers the critical question today in language arts as not how reading and writing should be taught but what children will learn and whether teachers or program designers should make that decision. He argues that teachers can demonstrate the usefulness and enjoyment of reading and writing, but language arts programs can not. He further condemns programs as piecemeal, unmotivated, standardized, "decontextualized," trivial, and difficulty-oriented.

Smith, Frank. "The Language Arts and the Learner's Mind." Language Arts 56 (1979): 118-25, 145.

The article presents a theory of how children learn about spoken language, written language and literature, and how they learn to write. The author questions why educators ever divided these language skills into categories.

Smith, Frank. "Learning to Read by Reading." Language Arts 53 (1976): 297-99, 322.

This is a brief case study of a 3½-year-old boy filmed as he explores stores. It addresses five issues related to reading: 1) Children probably begin to read as soon as they are aware of print in any meaningful way. 2) The roots of reading are discernable whenever children strive to make sense of print - before they are able to recognize many of the actual words. 3) The formal mechanics of reading are unnecessary in these initial stages and actually may be a hindrance. 4) Words don't have to be in a sentence to be meaningful; they just have to be in a meaningful context. 5) There is no reason to fear that a child's learning ability will be smothered by too much adult assistance.

Smith, Frank. "Making Sense of Reading - And of Reading Instruction." Harvard Educational Review 47 (1977): 386-95.

In this essay Smith claims that the essential antecedents of reading consist of two cognitive insights: that written language is meaningful and that written language is different from spoken language. He discusses the importance of each of these insights and explains how children typically learn them. He argues that current instructional practices may thwart the learning of these insights and suggests ways in which parents and teachers may help children to understand that reading makes sense.

Smith, Frank. "Myths of Writing." Language Arts 58 (1981): 792-98.

This collection of 21 misconceptions about writing is grouped into sets of "Smith's Myths" about the nature of writing, how writing is learned, and how it is practiced. The author concludes with "The Grand Myth About Who Can Teach Writing: People who do not enjoy and practice writing can teach children how to write." Suggestions for how to become a better language arts teacher and writer follow.

Smith, Frank. "The Role of Prediction in Reading." Elementary English 52 (1975): 305-311.

The author builds a case for the ideas that prediction is essential for reading, that everyone who can comprehend spoken language is capable of prediction, and that prediction is routinely practiced in reading by beginners as well as fluent readers. He offers four reasons readers make prediction, defines prediction, illustrates prediction in operation, describes advantages of prediction, and elaborates on conditions that must be met if a child is to be able to predict in the manner essential for learning to read.

Smith, Frank. "The Uses of Language." Language Arts 54 (1977): 638-44.

The author lists 10 general uses of language and several non-language alternatives to convey the same meaning, then presents 12 observations regarding the study of language and the practices of language instruction. He suggests that language use and fluency may be developed by simultaneous or prior encouragement of non-language alternatives to achieve the same ends described in his list of language uses.

Annotated List of Resource Materials

Mathematics

Bley, Nancy S., and Carol A. Thornton. Teaching Mathematics to the Learning Disabled. Rockville, MD: Aspen, 1981.

A comprehensive treatment of diagnosis, sequencing of instruction, and exercises for students with a variety of disabilities. Covers most areas of elementary school mathematics in a sequential fashion.

Cawley, J.F. Developmental Teaching of Mathematics for the Learning Disabled. Rockville, MD: Aspen Systems, 1984.

This book provides a functional framework to adapt math instruction to meet individual needs. It provides 55 instructional activities for kindergarten to grade 2, 65 instructional activities for grades 2 to 4, sample instructional techniques for upper grades, where to find more information (253 references), and many more useful sections. For each grade level, the book contains step-by-step directions for teaching appropriate math concepts, operations, and skills.

Copeland, Richard W. How Children Learn Mathematics. Philadelphia: Saunders, 1979.

A complete application of the theories of Piaget to mathematics education. Although not a complete "how to teach mathematics" book it gives an accurate and complete basis for selecting and sequencing the teaching techniques which can be found elsewhere.

D'Augustine, Charles H. Multiple Methods of Teaching Mathematics in the Elementary School. New York: Harper and Row, 1968.

A general text for the methods of teaching elementary mathematics but of particular interest for the author's emphasis on presenting each topic in a variety of ways. These are frequently along a concrete to abstract continuum.

Dumas, Enoch, and C.W. Schminke. Math Activities for Child Involvement. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1977.

Hundreds of easily used games, activities, and projects for teaching and reinforcing most of the mathematics topics of the elementary school.

Ginsbury, Herbert P., ed. The Development of Mathematical Thinking. New York: Academic Press, 1983.

A sometimes complex, psychological treatment of how children think mathematically. Of particular importance are the chapters on how early number word meanings and concepts are acquired and a chapter on the development of children's problem solving abilities.

Ginsburg, Herbert P. Children's Arithmetic: The Learning Process. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1977.

A short but rich and easily read treatment of how children acquire early number concepts and how this knowledge can be used in the classroom. Includes some case studies.

Kennedy, Leonard M. Guiding Children's Learning of Mathematics. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, 1984.

A methods text for elementary mathematics which emphasizes the psychological theories on which children's learning is based. It provides many practical suggestions for the teaching of each concept.

Overholt, James L. Dr. Jim's Elementary Math Prescriptions. Santa Monica: Goodyear, 1978.

A set of activities which can be used in initial teaching, reinforcing, or remediating most elementary mathematics concepts.

Paige, Donald D., Edna F. Bazik, Frances J. Budreck, Diane Thiessen, and Margaret Wild. Elementary Mathematical Methods. New York: Wiley, 1978.

A general methods text for the mathematics of the elementary school. Covers all of the standard topics and provides many teaching suggestions for each. Attempts to present each topic from a problem solving standpoint - not through memorization of rules.

Silbert, J., D. Carnine, and M. Stein. Direct Instruction Mathematics. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1981.

This practical book is designed to teach mathematics to hard-to-teach learners. It offers specific suggestions for presenting each math skill area, techniques for pacing tasks, motivating students, diagnosing, and correcting errors. The text focuses on the math competencies most critical to everyday living and on the content areas that prove most troublesome for students.

Troutman, Andrea P., and Betty K. Lichtenberg. Mathematics: A Good Beginning. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1977.

Explains the content of elementary school mathematics in non-technical terms, then provides a variety of strategies and activities for teaching each concept.

Annotated List of Resource Materials Behavior

Clarizio, H.F. Toward Positive Classroom Discipline. New York: Wiley, 1976.

This text deals with shaping appropriate behavior in the classroom including the use of reward, modeling, extinction, punishment, desensitization, and positive disciplinary procedures. Practical applications are included for each area.

Dreikurs, Rudolf, Bernice Bronica Grunwald, and Floy C. Peper. Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom: Illustrated Teaching Techniques. New York: Harper, 1971.

This book is intended to encourage teachers to adopt new attitudes toward others, to change their own goals, and be more concerned with helping the students under their direction. It provides a discussion of the theoretical premises underlying suggestions for creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning and enjoyment. Case studies of classroom problems are used to illustrate group dynamics techniques and problem solving through group discussions dealing with discipline as well as learning.

Hawley, Robert C., and Isabel L. Hawley. Human Values in the Classroom: A Handbook for Teachers. New York: Hart Pub. Co., 1975.

Part One of the book presents the authors' rationale for teaching human values. They view teaching human values as tantamount to teaching children "survival skills." They envision the new role of the teacher as a helper in diagnosing and developing skills in creative and critical thinking - not just as a dispenser of knowledge. Part Two describes a sequence of seven teaching concerns that relate to the process of learning and are seen as necessary in planning any lesson, unit or course. The seven concerns are: 1) "Orientation," (Why are we here?); 2) "Community Building," (How can we get to know each other better, so we can work together?); 3) "Achievement Motivation," (What are our goals and what are we willing to risk to attain them?); 4) "Fostering Open Communication," (How can we communicate, understand each other better?); 5) "Information Seeking, Gathering and Sharing," (What do we know, what do we need to know, where can we find the information, and what information can we share with each other?); 6) "Value Exploration and Clarification," (What do we value, do we have enough information to form value judgments and what additional information is needed?); and 7) "Planning for Change," (How do we want to change; what alternative courses of action are open to us; what resources are available; how do we decide which alternatives and resources to use; and how can we act on our decisions?). Part Three contains pointers on maintaining a positive attitude and on grades and evaluation. Classroom activities for each of the seven teaching concerns are presented throughout the book.

Hollingsworth, Ellen Jane, Henry S. Lufner Jr., and William H. Clune III. School Discipline, Order and Autonomy. New York: Praeger, 1984.

This book presents a sociology of discipline in schools. Empirical data and site observation are used to clarify the role discipline plays in the school setting. Issues such as identifying the seriousness of

school disorders, identifying the most problematic aspects of the school discipline system, and how to achieve a better fit between the school's need for order and the need for student development of autonomy are presented in detail.

Sprick, Randall S. The Solution Book: A Guide to Classroom Discipline. Chicago: Science Research Assoc., 1981.

This reference book contains 100 solution sheets in a looseleaf binder, providing a ready reference on preventing and dealing with behavior problems in the classroom. There are also nine booklets contained in the reference that cover general topics such as "Setting Goals for Student Behavior," "Establishing a Discipline Plan," "Improving the Students' Self-Concept," "Effective Reinforcement and Effective Punishment," and others. The solution sheets provide strategies for dealing with specific problems such as fighting, talking out, etc. These solutions are applicable to any classroom organization.

Stephens, T.M. Social Skills in the Classroom. Columbus, OH: Cedars Press, 1978.

This book is intended for use by regular and special educators. It presents a directive teaching approach to training social skills valued by teachers and highly correlated to academic learning. Skills to be taught are clearly defined; methods for assessing student behavior relating to desired skills are described; and suggestions are made for teaching strategies using teacher-made and published curriculum materials. Parts of the book include an "Introduction to Teaching Classroom Social Skills," an "Index," "Coding System," and "Social Skills List." "Environmental Behaviors," "Interpersonal Behavior," "Self-Related Behaviors," and "Task-Related Behaviors" are dealt with using the prescriptive model described above. The book includes references, selected readings, an "Individual Student Assessment Form," and a "Class Profile Form."

Annotated List of Resource Materials

General Resources

Allen, B., J. Mason, and K. McKean. Exceptions: A Handbook For Teachers of Mainstreamed Students. Cushing, OK: Oklahoma Child Service Demonstration Center, 1982.

This text discusses practical daily techniques that can be used in any classroom to improve student skills in organization, reading, math, questioning, handwriting, and study habits. The format of the text follows: 1) adaptive techniques (initiated by the teacher) such as color coding, lowering readabilities, study guides, test adaptations, and contracts; 2) compensatory techniques (carried out by the students) such as an organizational notebook, math manipulation techniques, carbon copy notes, and use of a typewriter; 3) remedial activities (designed by remedial teachers and brought into the classroom) using computers, games for review, comprehension guides; 4) survival skills (needed by anyone to succeed in class work) include techniques for reading texts, answering questions, note taking, and test taking ideas.

Billups, Lovely H., and Marilyn Rauth. "The New Research: How Effective Teachers Teach." American Educator, Summer, 1984, pp. 34-39.

This article presents an outline of findings on effective classroom management and teaching practices. The authors explain how new research can be used to provide a checklist of effective teaching techniques. The authors emphasize that the research does not prescribe any one way to teach; included are several suggestions from various vantage points.

Boyce, Nancy L., and Vicki Lord Larson. Adolescents' Communication Development and Disorders. Eau Claire, WI: Thinking, Ink., 1983.

The book is divided into six sections. It opens with background on the expectations that educators have about how students in grades 7-12 should communicate. The concomitant problems that result from a failure to meet these expectations in the four main skills areas that the book covers are then described. These skills areas are cognitive development, language comprehension/listening, language production/conversational skills, and survival language skills. Also covered are normal adolescent physiological, sociological, and psychological development, and the basic premises on which intervention should be based in order to be successful. The book presents a model for delivering services to the adolescent and examines specific criteria for entrance into and dismissal from special programs. For each of the four skill areas, the authors present general strategies; specific goals; exercises, questions, and activities; plus a list of recommended commercial programs and resources. They describe strategies suitable for the educational system (especially guidelines for modifying the curriculum) and for the environment (particularly ideas for involving family members and peers). The book concludes with an extensive glossary and a bibliography with reproducible forms and with exercises to help clarify important points and apply ideas to a particular situation.

Gruenewald, Lee J. and Sara A. Pollak. Language Interaction in Teaching and Learning. Baltimore: U Park Press, 1984.

This book is written for both regular and special education classroom teachers. It discusses the impact that student, teacher and curricular language have on academic performance and suggests that some students fail because of problems with the language of the teacher and/or curriculum. The book provides the reader with procedures for identifying and analyzing this language interaction. It offers suggestions and ideas to the teacher for improving students' chances for success in daily classroom activities.

Hammill, D.D., and N.R. Bartel. Teaching Children with Learning and Behavior Problems. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975. (also, 2nd ed, 1978 and 3rd ed, 1982.)

This text is a general source to use in giving extra help in reading, math, spelling, writing, classroom management, language development, and perceptual motor processes. Each chapter gives general suggestions of what to look for and specific informal and formal testing ideas for each area. Various types of programs are discussed and critiqued. Toward the end of each chapter is a caution regarding materials not to use with certain students. Suggestions are made as to how academic class concepts can be studied outside of the scheduled class time.

Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson. Learning Together and Alone. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

This book promotes the use of cooperative instructional activities in classroom teaching. It is based on the rationale that cooperation is motivating and satisfying for students and enhances student performance. The appropriate uses of competitive and individualistic learning methods and cooperative goal structures are discussed. Strategies and ideas are presented for implementing and evaluating the use of cooperative goal structures in the classroom. A review of research supporting the approach is included in the appendix.

Johnson, David W., et al. Circles of Learning. Alexandria, VA: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984.

Chapter 1, "Why Cooperative Learning Is Important," discusses why the authors believe that overuse of competitive and individualistic instructional methods in schools reinforces difficulties students have out of school, and why such practices don't prepare students for the cooperative atmosphere of the workplace or the home. Chapter 2, "Relevance of Research on Cooperative Learning," reviews the research supporting cooperative learning, and discusses some areas where it can be applied. Chapter 3, "Implementing Cooperative Learning," discusses how schools can use this method, and provides 18 suggestions for structuring learning situations. Chapter 4, "Teaching Students Cooperative Skills," reviews how to teach cooperative skills (listing some of the basic skills), and describes a teaching model. Chapter 5, "Supervising Teachers' Use of Cooperative Learning," discusses how to promote the sustained use of cooperative learning procedures, and how to set up a professional support system, with suggestions listed.

Lovitt, Thomas C. Tactics for Teaching. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1984.

This book provides 50 tactics for improving reading skills, 12 for arithmetic skills, 25 for improving pupils' self-management skills, and 25 to help teachers with their classroom management. Tactics in each subject and skill area are divided into beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. Tactics are designed for use by regular and special classroom teachers, as well as by aides and paraprofessionals.

Mayle, J., and R.H. Riegel, Maladies and Remedies: Guidelines for Modifications of Materials and Methods For Mainstreamed Adolescents With Academic Difficulties. Plymouth, MI: Model Resource Room Project, 1979.

This book lists difficulties students may encounter in organizing, listening/speaking, reading, writing, and thinking (on the left side of each page), and short concise remedies (on the right side of each page).

Rosner, J. Helping Children Overcome Learning Difficulties. New York: Walker and Co., 1979.

This text is designed to help parents give students additional one-to-one teaching at home. Areas discussed include perceptual problems, reading, math, and spelling.

Van Keusen, A.K., D.E. Wiseman, and M. Simpson. Teacher Training Modules: Instructional Alternatives for Secondary Teachers and the Exceptional Child. Tempe, AZ: Arizona State U. Demonstration Resource Center, 1980.

This manual contains training modules that can be used for staff development in inservice sessions that present, for example, one or two skills during a 20 to 25 minute period. The modules present teacher skills in the following format: 1) skill description, 2) initial assessment, 3) rationale, 4) facilitator's explanation of the skill, 5) instructions for participants, 6) participants' demonstration of the skill, and 7) materials. Each module provides teachers with a different strategy or instructional alternative for presenting content to students who are low-achieving and/or mildly handicapped. The majority of the instructional alternatives focus on helping teachers modify existing aspects of the teaching environment to accommodate student needs.

Wiig, E.H., and E.M. Semel. Language Assessment and Intervention for the Learning Disabled. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1980.

The book is written for classroom teachers and special educators. It focuses on the impact oral language has on the curriculum. It provides assessment and intervention strategies for syntax, semantic, and memory problems. The book contains numerous examples of teaching techniques, test items, and behavioral descriptions of the typical language/learning disabled child.

Wiig, E.H., and E.M. Semel. Language Disabilities in Children and Adolescents. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1976.

This book discusses the fact that language deficits often underlie and contribute to reading and learning disabilities. Language disabilities are delineated as processing or production deficits. It provides the reader with procedures to analyze language disabilities and strategies to remediate them.

Works Consulted

- Becker, Laurence D., and Marilee A. Snider. "Teachers' Ratings and Predicting Special Class Placement." Journal of Learning Disabilities 12.2 (1979): 37-40.
- Bergan, John R., Ian M. Byrnes, and Thomas R. Kratochwill. "Effects of Behavioral and Medical Models of Consultation on Teacher Expectancies and Instruction of a Hypothetical Child." Journal of School Psychology 17 (1979): 307-316.
- Brophy, Jere E. "Teacher Behavior and its Effects." Journal of Educational Psychology 71.6 (1979): 733-50.
- Bullock, Lynda, et al. "LD or Not?" Illinois State Board of Education. n.d.
- Chalfant, James C., and Margaret Van Dusen Pysh. "Teacher Assistance Teams: A Model For Within-Building Problem Solving." Counterpoint Nov. 1981: 21-24.
- Connolly, John A., and Janet McGrail. School Variables Affecting Student Learning. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1978. ERIC ED 179 555.
- Crano, William D., and Phyllis M. Mellon. "Casual Influence of Teachers' Expectations on Children's Academic Performance: A Cross-Lagged Panel Analysis." Journal of Educational Psychology 70.1 (1978): 39-49.
- Elkind, David. "Viewpoint: The curriculum-disabled child." Topics in Learning and Learning Disabilities July 1983: 71-78.
- Forness, Steven R., Esther Sinclair, and Donald Guthrie. "Learning Disability Discrepancy Formulas: Their Use In Actual Practice." Learning Disability Quarterly 6 (1983): 107-114.

- Gear, Gayle H., and Robert K. Gable. "Educating Handicapped Children In The Regular Classroom: Needs Assessment In Teacher Preparation." Journal of Research and Development in Education 12.4 (1979): n.p.
- Gladwin, Lee A. "Decisions! Decisions! Decisions!--A Problem Solving Approach to Training and Development." NSPI Journal Dec. 1982: 32-37.
- Good, Thomas L. "Teacher Expectations And Student Perceptions: A Decade Of Research." Educational Leadership Feb. 1981: 414-421.
- Gruenewald, Lee, and Sara Pollack. "Analyzing Language Interactions In Academics." Journal of Learning Disabilities Nov. 1975: 11-17.
- Guba, Egon G., and Yvonna S. Lincoln. "Epistemological and Methodological Bases of Naturalistic Inquiry." ECTJ 30.4: 233-252.
- Halseth, Susan L. "Screening: From 'At Risk' To Educational Management Review Of Social Emotional Behavior." CESA #6 E.D. Screening and Awareness Project, Chippewa Falls, WI, June 1982.
- Hardin, Veralee B. "Ecological Assessment And Intervention For Learning Disabled Students." Learning Disability Quarterly 1 (1978): 15-20.
- Helton, George B. "Guidelines for Assessment in Special Education." Focus On Exceptional Children May 1984: 1-17.
- Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson. "The Integration of the Handicapped into the Regular Classroom: Effects of Cooperative and Individualistic Instruction." Contemporary Educational Psychology 6 (1981): 344-353.

- Keogh, Barbara K., et al. "Marker Variables: A Search For Comparability And Generalizability In The Field Of Learning Disabilities." Learning Disability Quarterly 1 (1978): 5-11.
- Larrivee, Barbara, and Linda Cook. "Mainstreaming: A Study Of The Variables Affecting Teacher Attitude." Journal Of Special Education 13.3 (1979): 315-324.
- Louisiana State Board of Elementary and Secondary Education. "Bulletin 1508: Pupil Appraisal Handbook." n.d.
- Maheady, Larry, et al. "Minority Overrepresentation: A Case For Alternative Practices Prior To Referral." Learning Disability Quarterly 6 (1983): 448-456.
- Medway, Frederic J. "Casual Attributions for School-Related Problems: Teacher Perceptions and Teacher Feedback." Journal of Educational Psychology 71.6 (1979): 809-818.
- Monaco, Theresa M., and Eugene L. Chappetta. "Identifying Competencies For Mainstream Teachers Through The Perceptions Of State Directors Of Special Education." Education 99.1 (n.d.): 59-63.
- New England Regional Resource Center. "Special Ideas For Educating Handicapped Children and Youth: Developing Support Systems for Regular Educators." U.S. Dept. of Education, n.d.
- Parish, Thomas S., Norma Dyck, and Bruno M. Kappes. "Stereotypes Concerning Normal And Handicapped Children." Journal Of Psychology 102 (1979): 63-70.
- Reid, Margaret I., et al. "Mixed Ability Teaching: Problems and Possibilities." Educational Research Nov. 1981: 3-10.

Shavelson, Richard J., and Paula Stern. "Research on Teachers' Pedagogical Thoughts, Judgments, Decisions, and Behavior." Review of Educational Research 51.4 (1981): 455-498.

Shepard, Lorrie A., and Mary Lee Smith. "An Evaluation Of The Identification Of Learning Disabled Students In Colorado." Learning Disability Quarterly 6 (1983): 115-127.

Shepard, Lorrie A. "Assessment Of Learning Disabilities." University of Colorado, 1982. ERIC/TM Report 84.

Stephens, Thomas M., and Benjamin L. Braun. "Measures of Regular Classroom Teachers' Attitudes Toward Handicapped Children." Exceptional Children 46.4 (1980): 292-294.

Williams, Robert J., and Bob Algozzine. "Teachers' Attitudes toward Mainstreaming." Elementary School Journal Nov. 1979: 63-67.

Ysseldyke, James E., et al. "An Analysis Of Prereferral Interventions." Psychology in the Schools April 1983: 184-190.

Ysseldyke, James E. "Current Practices in Making Psychoeducational Decisions About Learning Disabled Students." Journal of Learning Disabilities April 1983: 226-232.

---, and Martha L. Thurlow. "Identification/Classification Research: An Integrative Summary of Findings." Institute for Research on Learning Disabilities, Research Report No. 142, University of Minnesota, 1983.

Addendum

Graebner, Jean, and Sherry Dobbs, "A Team Approach to Problem Solving in the Classroom." Phi Delta Kappan October 1984: 138-141.

Appendix

Rules Implementing Subchapter V of Chapter 115, Wisconsin Statutes

All children identified as learning disabled in Wisconsin for purposes of receiving exceptional education must be identified in accordance with the state rules and criteria. It is important that educators assessing children for possible learning disabilities have a working knowledge of, and adhere to, the state criteria.

The rules governing the identification of learning disabled children are found in PI 11.34 and appendix J of the Rules Implementing Subchapter V (former IV), Chapter 115, of Wisconsin Statutes. These rules were supplemented by some of the federal procedures as outlined in DHC Bulletin 78-2. The state learning disabilities rules and criteria, along with the pertinent sections of DHC Bulletin 78-2 are reprinted in the appendix for your information.

PI 11.34

Learning Disabilities

1. The handicapping condition of learning disabilities denotes severe and unique learning problems due to a disorder existing within the child which significantly interferes with the ability to acquire, organize, or express information. These problems are manifested in school functioning in an impaired ability to read, write, spell, or arithmetically reason or calculate.
2. Criteria for identification. The child shall meet the criteria in PI 11.34 2.a. and b. to be considered as having the handicapping condition of learning disabilities.
 - a. Academic functioning. A child whose primary handicapping condition is due to learning disabilities shall exhibit a significant discrepancy between functional achievement and expected achievement. A significant discrepancy is defined as functional achievement at or below 50% (.5) of expected achievement.
 - i. The child when first identified, shall have a significant discrepancy in functional achievement in 2 or more of the readiness or basic skill areas of math, reading, spelling, and written language. To determine a significant discrepancy in the readiness areas the M-team shall consider the child's receptive and expressive language and fine motor functioning. A significant discrepancy in the single area of math, accompanied by less significant, yet demonstrable discrepancies in other basic skill areas may satisfy the academic eligibility criteria.
 - ii. Functional achievement is defined as the child's instructional level in readiness and basic skill areas. Determination of functional achievement shall be based on a combination of formal and informal individualized tests, criterion-referenced measures, observations, and an analysis of classroom expectations in basic skills.
 - iii. The following formula shall be used to determine expected achievement: $I.Q. \times \text{years in school}$. Years in school is defined as the number of years of school completed since enrollment in 5-year-old kindergarten. A child who entered first grade without benefit of kindergarten should have a factor of one year added to that child's total years in school for computational purposes.
 - iv. The following formula yields a grade score to which the child's previously determined functional achievement level is compared. If the functional achievement level is at or below the grade score derived from the formula a significant discrepancy exists: $I.Q. \times \text{Years in School} \times .5 = \text{Grade Score (50\% of expected achievement)}$. This formula is inappropriate for children who have not completed 2

years in school. Children entering kindergarten or first grade who are achieving in readiness areas one or more years below expected achievement levels for their chronological age may be considered as having a significant discrepancy between their functional and expected achievement. See Appendix J for examples.

- v. A child whose functional achievement approaches but is not at or below 50% of expected achievement may be considered to have met the academic functioning criterion if the child demonstrates variable performance between the sub-skills required for each of the areas of reading, writing, spelling, arithmetical reasoning, or calculation and if the child meets all the other criteria used to identify the handicapping condition of learning disabilities. This determination shall be based on the M-team's collective judgment and the rationale shall be documented in the M-team report.
- vi. In attendance centers where the number of children functioning at or below 50% of expected achievement exceeds that which might be anticipated for the general population, additional efforts shall be made to substantiate that the child's functional achievement level is due to a disorder existing within the child and not due to those conditions enumerated in PI 11.34 (2).
- vii. Evidence shall exist that the learning disabilities are primarily attributable to a deficit within the child's learning system. Such evidence may include average or above average ability in some areas. In documenting this in-child variability academic and non-academic behaviors shall be considered.
- b. Intellectual functioning. Children whose primary handicapping condition is due to learning disabilities shall exhibit normal or potential for normal intellectual functioning.
 - i. This measure of intellectual functioning may be established by a score above a minus one standard deviation on a single score intelligence instrument, or by a verbal or performance quotient of 90 or above on a multiple score intelligence instrument.
 - ii. The instrument used to establish this measure shall be recognized as a valid and comprehensive individual measure of intellectual functioning.
 - iii. If there is reason to suspect the test results are not true indices of a particular child's ability, then clarification of why the results are considered invalid shall be provided. Previous experience, past performance and other supportive data that intellectual functioning is average shall be present and documented in written form.
 - iv. There may exist rare cases of severe language involvement which detrimentally affect the learning disabled child's ability to perform adequately on intelligence tests given the language emphasis of these instruments. In these rare situations the importance of the intellectual criteria may be reduced given substantial evidence to indicate average ability.

3. Learning problems, when primarily due to the following, shall be excluded from consideration as learning disabilities.

- a. The other handicapping conditions specified in section 115.76(3), Wis. Stats.
- b. Learning problems resulting from extended absence, continuous inadequate instruction, curriculum planning, or instructional strategies.
- c. Discrepancies between ability and school achievement due to motivation.
- d. Functioning at grade level but with potential for greater achievement.

Note that PI 11.34 excluded educational needs that result primarily from poverty, neglect, delinquency, social maladjustment, cultural or linguistic isolation, or inappropriate instruction.

Appendix J

The formula used is a modification of a reading expectancy formula developed by Bond and Tinker (Bond, G. L. and Tinker, M. A., Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction (2nd ed.) New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967). The Bond and Tinker studies indicate that the predicted achievement scores derived from the original formula ($I.Q. \times \text{years in school} + 1.0 = \text{expected reading grade}$) closely approximate actual reading achievement. Because the components of the formula are general, i.e., number of "years in school" and intelligence, it is believed that this formula can be adapted and appropriately applied to all the academic areas specified in PI 11.34.

The Bond & Tinker formula did not include 5 year old kindergarten in "years in school" but in effect allowed for it by adding in a 1.0 factor. To simplify the formula and to ensure that the child is constantly compared to the same referent group, 5 year old kindergarten was added to the formula and the 1.0 factor deleted. This should ease computation without detracting from the accuracy of the formula.

Definition of factors in formula:

A. I.Q. - full scale score derived from an individual measure of intellectual functioning.
I.Q. should be written as a decimal, for example 87 equals .87, 105 equals 1.05, etc.

B. years in school - number of years in school beginning with 5 year kindergarten.

The Bond & Tinker formula was weighted by a factor of .5 (50%) in order to indicate the level at or below which a child must function to exhibit a significant discrepancy. The full formula then is:

$(I.Q. \times \text{years in school}) \times .5 = \text{grade score (50\% of expected achievement.)}$

Examples utilizing this formula are:

A. child beginning the fifth year of school (beginning fourth grade, e.g., 4 years in school) with a measured full scale I.Q. of 92 (.92) would have a grade score computed in the following manner:

$$(.92 \times 4) \times .5 = (3.60) \times .5 = 1.8$$

B. A child in the 7th month of second grade, who is repeating second grade, with a measured full scale I.Q. of 101 (1.01) would have a grade score computed in the following manner:

$$(1.01 \times 3.7) \times .5 = (3.7) \times .5 = 1.9$$

C. A child in the ninth year of school (8th grade) with an I.Q. of 113 (1.13), who is identified in January, would have a grade score computed in the following manner:

$$(1.13 \times 8.5) \times .5 = (9.6) \times .5 = 4.8$$

D. A child entering kindergarten at 5 years of age with average ability and functioning at or below a 4 year level in 2 or more of the readiness areas will meet the academic criteria of eligibility. The formula for establishing grade score should not be used.

E. A child entering third grade at the age of 8 who has not completed 3 years in school (no kindergarten) would have a factor of 1.0 added to the years in school for determining grade score (50% of expected achievement).

$$(I.Q. \times \text{years in school}) \times .5 = \text{grade score}$$

$$(1.00 \times 2 + 1) \times .5 =$$

$$(2.00 + 1) \times .5 =$$

$$3.0 \times .5 = 1.5$$

Therefore if this 8 year old child entering third grade is achieving at the 1.5 grade level or below in 2 or more of the readiness or basic skill areas, this child will meet the academic criteria of eligibility.

F. A child entering first grade who has average ability and has completed 2 years in school (retained in kindergarten) would have the formula applied for establishing grade score.

$$(.90 \times 2) \times .5 = 1.80 \times .5 = .9$$

Additional Identification Requirements

On December 29, 1977 the federal government published final rules to be used in identifying children as having the handicapping condition of learning disabilities. These rules became effective on February 2, 1978, (ss 121A.540 - 121A.543). State and federal regulations are not in agreement. In Wisconsin all school districts will continue to use the state rules as found in PI 11.34 (2)(g) for identifying learning disabilities with these additions from the federal rules:

1. The M-team must include the child's regular teacher or a regular classroom teacher qualified to teach children of that age.
2. Each child suspected as being learning disabled must be observed in a regular classroom or other age appropriate setting by a member of the team other than the child's regular teacher. PI 11.33 specifies that the special education teacher "shall conduct and document any interviews, observations . . . required to reach educational conclusions." It is recommended that the LD teacher observe the child in a regular classroom setting. This requirement does not limit others from observing the child nor does it limit the situations in which the LD teacher may observe the child.
3. All team members must certify in writing whether they concur or do not concur with M-team plan. Team members not concurring with the M-team plan must submit separate statements indicating the points they do not concur with as well as those they do agree with, and the rationale for their position.

Note: Copies of the federal LD criteria are available from the Division for Handicapped Children and Pupil Services, Department of Public Instruction.

A Learning Quiz

To assist you in evaluating your understanding of issues involved in Decisions: A Process for Screening Educational Problems in the Classroom, answer the following questions. References to pages with answers to the questions follow each question in parenthesis.

1. Screening, using a decision making process, simply refers to collecting and reviewing information about _____ individuals to identify those who may be exceptional. (Page 11)
2. The most important potential benefit of working through the cases in this workshop is learning to ask the right questions. (Page 12)
3. The initial definition of the "problem" influences how people gather and interpret data by narrowing their focus as to: (Page 15)
 - a. what is looked for.
 - b. what is considered important.
 - c. what are perceived as contingencies and side effects.
4. Two features that a "naturalistic" paradigm for disciplined inquiry has to recommend it are: (Page 15)
 - a. the data leads to a guess about the nature of the problem.
 - b. takes advantage of the teacher as an investigator.
5. The basic premise of the teaching assistance team is that (who) all teachers has/have responsibility for the successful education of:
 every student in the classroom.
 X every student in the school. (Page 17)
6. Teachers should be required to bring their problems to a teaching assistance team prior to initiating an EEN referral. (circle one)
True or False (Page 17)
7. Two ways the teaching assistance team helps teachers are:
 - a. it helps provide quick intervention.
 - b. it assists in screening. (Page 17)

8. Research suggests that a national level of 75% percent of the children referred were placed in exceptional education. (Page 17)
9. Because many of the characteristics ascribed to the learning disabled are also common to immature children or individuals with other handicapping conditions, the screening process must start with being aware of what is expected for a specific group of students. (Page 21)
10. The term match refers to student behavior/performance which is compatible with the expectations that exist in a given learning situation. (Page 27)
11. Research supports the fact that teacher's perceptions of students influence their expectations, and that teachers tend to create a reality to fit their perceptions. (Page 24)
12. The cycle of teacher expectations is broken by taking these four steps:
- a. clarify expectations.
 - b. decide if they are realistic.
 - c. change expectations if needed.
 - d. change teacher actions if needed. (Page 24)

Screening Worksheet Packet

Note: It is not necessary to complete every worksheet in its entirety to carry out screening. The worksheets are intended to help you compile the data needed for decision making and documentation purposes only.



Teacher _____

Student _____

I. Classroom Review

1. List your expectations.

2. How have you communicated them to students?

3. Identify matches and mismatches between student performance/behavior and your expectations.

Matches

Mismatches

4. Action taken.

Mismatches

Action

Outcome

Next step



Student

B. Gathering Information

1. What is the purpose of the lesson (activity).
2. What are the expectations for students in this setting?
3. How are the students performing in this lesson?
4. What matches and mismatches exist between the expectations and student performance?

外 營 營 營 營 特 特 營 營 特 特 營 營

Teaching activity: _____

Purpose of the teaching activity: _____

List two or three of the most important expectations that exist in this lesson (activity). Then, record your observations of student performance relative to each expectation. Finally, record the matches and mismatches involving groups or individual students.

Expectations	Observations	Match (Name)	Mismatch (Name)



Teacher _____

Student _____

■. Describe (continued)**B. Gathering Information (continued)**

The worksheet below will help you answer the following questions.

5. What underlying problem(s) may be contributing to the mismatch(es)?

- a. Use the checklist of Contributing Factors (see Decisions Workshop Supplemental Resource) as a "laundry list" to be sure you have considered the important variables that research says affect student learning.

- b. List the underlying problems below.

6. Are the underlying problems primarily teacher factors, classroom factors, or student factors? (Check the primary factor that is contributing to each problem.)

	Mismatches	Underlying problem(s)	Teacher Factor	Classroom Factor	Student Factor
1.					
2.					
3.					



Teacher _____

Student _____

II. Describe (continued)**B. Gathering Information (continued)**

7. Which of the underlying problems needs attention first. Use the Criteria for "good" problem definition below in making your decision.

Criteria for "good" problem definition

1. Names the immediate issue and defines it in a way that calls for action-oriented answers.
2. Puts the issue in a proper educational strategy context; that is, the broader issue.
3. Problem lends itself to effective teacher controlled change, recognizing all the responsibilities and the scope of authority, as well as the limitations associated with that position. Definition considers who controls the change options:
 - others;
 - others with some minor adjustments possible;
 - teacher who is free to change unit of organization (independent units);
 - teacher who has access to other services (Chapter I, teaching aides, peer tutors);
 - bureaucracy.
4. Deals with a problem that, when fixed, will result in concrete improvements in student learning.

The problem you have chosen to work on first is: _____

8. What do you know about this problem? List the things you know here.



Teacher _____

Student _____

II. Describe (continued)

B. Gathering Information (continued)

9. What questions need to be answered?	10. How can I answer these questions?



Teacher _____

Student _____

Review Student Records

List all pertinent data below in chronological order. Include such things as school changes, attendance, curriculum, student successes, etc.

Source/Person

Date

Data/Comments



Teacher

Student

■. Describe (continued)

C. Analyze the data, draw conclusions, and brainstorm alternatives

1. What conclusions have you drawn about the nature of the problem?
2. Do you want to revise the problem statement? If so, write it here.
3. What are all of the possible alternatives you can think of for dealing with the problems?

-List all you can think of on your own.

-Then, brainstorm with your colleagues.

-Identify the pluses and minuses of each alternative. For example, the cost is prohibitive; the help is not immediately available?

Alternative	Pluses/Minuses
-------------	----------------



Teacher _____

Student _____

IV. Intervene (continued)

Use this worksheet to record other ideas and your long range follow-up plan.

C. Alternative Intervention Ideas

D. Follow-up Plan



Name: _____

School: _____

Things I Want to Learn More About

Content area: _____

Specific content: _____

Names of staff members in my building:

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Who above has attended a class, workshop, convention sectional, etc. or done study on his/her own dealing with this content:

Name

Activity

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Who in your building could help? (Administrator, Principal, Guidance Counselor, Speech and Language Clinician, Chapter I Teacher, School Nurse, Teacher's Aide, etc.) (Also, consider committees, junior high or senior high staff, and services.)

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____